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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

TENTH ANNUAL NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS,

Held at Louisville, Ky., September 24–30, 1883.

EDITED BY

A. O. WRIGHT,

RECORDING SECRETARY OF THE CONFERENCE AND SECRETARY OF THE WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

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PREFACE.

The Tenth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections, which met at Louisville, Ky., September 24–30, 1883, was the largest and most representative body of the kind ever assembled in this country. Nearly every state in the Union was represented by persons officially connected with State Boards of Charities or with charitable and penal institutions, or with voluntary charitable organizations. Nearly every variety of charitable or penal work was represented. Some of the most valuable papers ever prepared upon these subjects are to be found in these pages.

There was an embarrassment of matter in the programme, causing this volume to be much larger than any of its predecessors, notwithstanding considerable material has been omitted by the editor, and most of the discussions were imperfectly reported.

Among the features of special value in this year's proceedings are:

1. An able President's address, defining the work of public charity, by Mr. Fred H. Wines, of Illinois.

2. A very full report of the work of Boards of State Charities, by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan.

3. A very full series of reports from the Charity Organization Societies of our cities, supplemented by discussions and addresses by the leading men in this line, setting forth that comparatively new subject better than it has ever been presented before.

4. A very able series of papers on the treatment of criminals, by some of the best penologists of the country.

5. A searching arraignment of the Contract Lease System in the Southern States, drawn from their own official reports by George W. Cable, of Louisiana, the great southern novelist.

6. A paper on Hebrew Charities in the Middle Ages by a leading Hebrew Rabbi.

7. Papers and discussions upon Preventive Work among Children, the care of the Chronic Insane, the Cottage Plan of Building for the Insane, the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, Preventive Medical Charities, and reports from a large number of institutions and state boards.

It is a source of some little state pride to the editor, and may be of interest to the reader, to know that not only was the mechanical work of this volume done in a Wisconsin printing office, but that the paper on which it was printed was manufactured in Wisconsin; and that the heliotype of a former President of the Conference, which forms the frontispiece, was made by a Wisconsin establishment, the proprietor of which claims to have been the first to introduce the heliotype process into this country.

Some very unfortunate circumstances, not under the control of the editor, have much delayed the completion of this volume of the Proceedings. Measures have been taken to guard against their recurrence.

It is expected that the next Conference, to be held at St. Louis, October 13–18, 1884, will be large in numbers and full of interest. Programmes will be furnished by the President of the Conference, Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of Buffalo, N. Y., on application to him.

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James Matthews, Western Agent of the Childrens' Aid Society of New York City.
C. A. Richardson, Secretary of the Ontario Orphan Asylum, Canandaigua.
Dr. Wm. F. Thoms, President American Humane Society, New York City.
Dr. Israel C. Jones, Superintendent Home for Incurables, Fordham. —14

NORTH CAROLINA.

Hon. Z. B. Vance, Official Delegate, United States Senator, Charlotte.
John C. Scarborough, Official Delegate, State Superintendent of Instruction, Raleigh.
John H. Mills, Official Delegate, Superintendent Orphan Asylum, Oxford. —3

OHIO.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Member of Board of State Charities, Mansfield.
Wm. Howard Neff, Member of Board of State Charities, Cincinnati.
Isabel Howard Neff, Cincinnati.
Rev. A. G. Byers, Secretary of Board of State Charities, Columbus.
Rev. Lathrop Cooley, Chaplain of Bethel Home, Cleveland.
Mrs. L. Cooley, Matron of Bethel Home, Cleveland.

Rev. J. H. De Bruin, Chaplain State Penitentiary, Columbus.
Charles Douglass, Superintendent State Reform School for Boys, Lancaster.
Mrs. Charles Douglass, Matron of Ohio Reform School for Boys. Lancaster.
H. C. Filler, Superintendent Franklin County Infirmary, Columbus.
Mrs. H. C. Filler, Columbus.
Hon. M. D. Follett, Official Delegate, Marietta.
R. A. Holden, President House of Refuge. Cincinnati.
J. Webb, Jr., Director House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
James Dalton, Director House of Refuge. Cincinnati.
Henry Oliver, Superintendent House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
Henry M. Jones, Superintendent of Cincinnati Hospital.
Capt. W. D. Patterson, Superintendent of House of Correction, Cleveland.
Amasa Pratt, Superintendent of Deaf and Dumb Institute, Columbus.
W. J. Scott, M. D., Charity Organization, Cleveland.
A. C. Shattuck, Secretary of Cincinnati Associated Charities. —21

PENNSYLVANIA.

Philip C. Garrett, Official Delegate, Chairman of Commission on Lunacy and Member of Board of State Charities, Philadelphia.
Dr. Diller Luther, Secretary State Board Charities, Reading.
Hon. Richard Vaux, President Board of Inspectors of Eastern State Penitentiary and Delegate from Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons, Philadelphia.
Rev. J. L. Milligan, Official Delegate, Chaplain Western State Penitentiary and President Allegheny County Prison Society, Allegheny.
Dr. Charles E. Cadwalader, Director of Society for Organizing Charity, and Delegate from Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons, Philadelphia.
Dr. James W. Walk, General Secretary of Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
James V. Watson, Official Delegate, Member of Board of Managers of House of Refuge, Philadelphia.
Frederick Collins, Official Delegate, Member of Board of Managers of House of Refuge, Philadelphia.
Hon. Addison Lysle, Director of Allegheny County Workhouse, Allegheny.
J. R. Sypher, Director of Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
Miss M. Myers, Matron Home of Friendless, Erie.
Mahlon H. Paist, Prison Society, Philadelphia,
Mrs. Paist, Philadelphia. —13

RHODE ISLAND.

Lewis B. Smith, Member of Board of State Charities, Nayatt.
Stephen R. Weeden, Member of Board of State Charities, Providence.
Mrs. J. K. Barney, Official Delegate, Superintendent of Prison and Police Work for W. C. T. U., Providence. —3

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Maj. D. F. Bradley, Official Delegate, Chairman of Board of Directors of State Penitentiary, Pickens C. H.
Gen. John B. Erwin, Official Delegate, Regent of Lunatic Asylum, Lancaster C. H.
Dr. P. E. Griffin, Official Delegate, Superintendent Lunatic Asylum, Columbia.
Col. T. J. Lipscomb, Official Delegate and Superintendent State Penitentiary, Columbia.
Col. T. J. Moore, Official Delegate, Chairman of Board of Commissioners of Institution for Deaf, Dumb and Blind, Spartanburg.
Capt. N. F. Walker, Official Delegate, Superintendent of Institution for Deaf, Dumb and Blind, Cedar Springs. —6

TENNESSEE.

Rev. J. W. Bachman, Official Delegate, Treasurer Associated Charities, Chattanooga.
Hon. John C. Ferris, Probate Judge, Official Delegate, Nashville.
Hon. J. F. J. Lewis, Official Delegate, Knoxville.
F. S. Harris, Warden State Penitentiary, Nashville.
Mrs. Thomas H. McCallie, Official Delegate, Chattanooga.
Hon. R. C. McCree, Official Delegate, Chattanooga.
Mrs. Angus Campbell, Secretary W. C. A., Memphis.
Frank Hollowell, M. D., Superintendent Medical College Hospital, Nashville.
C. S. McKinney, Ripley.
Mrs. D. F. Rathbone, Shelbyville. —10

VERMONT.

W. G. Fairbank, Official Delegate and Superintendent Vermont Reform School, Vergennes.
Mrs. M. E. Fairbank, Matron Reform School, Vergennes. —2

VIRGINIA.

Rev. R. W. Credlin, Superintendent Orphan Asylum, Portsmouth.
Miss C. F. Ainslie, Richmond. —2

WISCONSIN.

Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, President State Board of Charities and Reform, Fort Howard.
Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks, State Board of Charities and Reform, Milwaukee.
Hon. H. H. Giles, State Board of Charities and Reform, Madison.
Ella A. Giles, Madison.
Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary State Board of Charities and Reform, Madison.
Lewis A. Proctor, State Board of Supervison Wisconsin Charitable, Penal, and Reformatory Institutions, Milwaukee.

Mrs. Mary E. Cobb, Superintendent Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, Milwaukee.
Mrs. Sarah F. C. Little, Superintendent Blind Institute, Janesville.
Major W. J. Dawes, U. S. A., Official Delegate, Milwaukee.
Mrs. D. H. Johnson, Official Delegate, Milwaukee.
Mrs. D. A. Olin, Official Delegate, Racine.
Mrs. J. Pendleton, Official Delegate, Racine.
Mrs. W. J. Dawes, Official Delegate, Milwaukee.
Corinne M. Rockwell, Milwaukee. —14

Total 279
States represented 32
(Including District of Columbia.)

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

TENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS,

Held at Louisville, Kentucky, Sept. 24–30, 1883.

PART I.

BUSINESS OF THE CONFERENCE.

BUSINESS OF THE CONFERENCE,

WITH SECRETARIES' RECORD OF DISCUSSIONS, ETC.

FIRST SESSION.

MONDAY EVENING, Sept. 24, 1883.

The Tenth Annual National Conference of Charities and Corrections met in the Polytechnic Institute in Louisville, Kentucky, Monday evening, September 24, 1883.

The President of the Conference, Hon. F. H. Wines, of Illinois, called the Conference to order, and asked the Rev. Dr. Perkins, of Louisville, Ky., to make the opening prayer (see page 3).

Addresses of welcome were made by the Mayor of Louisville (page 3), and by the Governor of Kentucky (page 4).

Responses were made on behalf of the Conference by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, a former President of the Conference (page 6), by Hon. Richard Vaux, of Philadelphia (page 7), by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina (page 8), by Judge Knapp, of Florida (page 10), and by Hon. John S. Williams, United States Senator from Kentucky (page 11).

The President of the Conference, Hon. F. H. Wines, of Illinois then delivered the Annual Address (page 11).

On motion of Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, the following Business Committee was appointed:

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio.
Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts.
Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York.
Dr. Diller Luther, of Pennsylvania.
Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina.

Invitations were received to visit the Louisville House of Refuge, the Lunatic Asylum at Anchorage, the Masonic Widows' and Orphans' Home, the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind, the City Hospital, the Polytechnic Institute, and the Industrial Exposition, then in progress.

Many citizens of Louisville were present, and music was furnished by a choir of boys from the Louisville House of Refuge.

The Conference then took a recess until morning.

SECOND SESSION.

TUESDAY MORNING, Sept. 25, 1883.

The Conference met in the council chamber of the City Hall, and was opened with prayer by Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri.

A letter was read from Hon. R. B. Hayes, ex-president of the United States, and recently elected President of the National Prison Association, expressing his sympathy with the objects of the Conference and his regrets at not being able to be present.

The Business Committee reported the following rules, which were adopted:

RULES.

1. Reports from states sending delegates shall not exceed ten minutes, but this time may be divided among delegates as they may agree.

2. Speakers shall be limited to five minutes, and shall not speak twice upon the same subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

3. Regular sessions of the Conference shall be held from 9 A. M., to 12 M.; from 2 P. M., to 5 P. M.; and from 7:30 P. M., to 9:30 P. M.

The Business Committee also reported an order for the day's proceedings, which was adopted.

The report of the Standing Committee on The Work of Boards of State Charities was then read by the chairman of that committee, Bishop G. D. Gillespie, Chairman of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, of Michigan (page 19).

This report was briefly discussed by Hon. D. W. Ingersoll, of Minnesota (page 35); Rev. A. G. Byers, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of Ohio (page 35); Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Inspector of Charities in Massachusetts (page 35); Mr. L. D. Lewelling, of Iowa (page 35); Mr. F. H. Wines, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of Illinois (page 36); Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of the State Board of Charities of Ohio (page 36); Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary of the State Board of Charities and Reform of Wisconsin; Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of the State Board of Charities, of Pennsylvania (page 36); and Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of New York (page 37).

The report for the State of Pennsylvania was then presented by Dr. Diller Luther, Secretary of the State Board of Charities (page 37).

The report for the State of Wisconsin was then read by Hon. H. H. Giles, a member of the State Board of Charities and Reform (page 43).

This was discussed by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (page 47); Gov. Chas. Anderson, of Kentucky (page 47); and Mr W. C. De Pauw, of Indiana.

The report from the State of Rhode Island was presented by Mr. Lewis B. Smith, a member of the Board of State Charities (page 49).

This was briefly discussed by Mrs. J. K. Barney, of Rhode Island; Mr. Stephen R. Weeden, of the State Board of Charities of Rhode Island; and Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary of the State Board of Charities and Reform of Wisconsin.

A report from the State of Massachusetts was pre-

sented by Miss Alzira A. Chevaillier, a State delegate (page 51).

The report from the State of Ohio was then presented by Mr. W. H. Neff, a member of the State Board of Charities (page 53).

This was discussed by Dr. D. Luther, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of Pennsylvania (page 56); Rev. A. G. Byers, Secretary of the State Board of Charities of Ohio; Hon. Richard Vaux, of Pennsylvania (page 56); Rev. J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania; Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Inspector of Charities of Massachusetts; and Dr. Chas. R. Putnam, of Massachusetts.

Dr. J. C. Corbus, President of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, moved that a committee of one from each state be appointed to select the time and place of the next meeting. This motion was carried. The President of the Conference requested the several State delegations to present him names for appointment on this Committee.

An invitation was received to visit the American Printing House for the Blind, and one to visit the Baptist Orphans' Home.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

THIRD SESSION.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, September 25, 1883.

The Conference was called to order at 2 P. M.

Reports from States being in order, a brief verbal report from New York was made by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, Secretary of the State Board of Charities (see page 57), and discussed by Rev. L. Cooley, of Ohio (page 57), and the Chairman (page 58).

The report from the State of Michigan was presented by Mr. W. J. Baxter, Secretary of the State Board of Corrections and Charities (page 58).

The Report of the Standing Committee on the Organization of Charities in Cities was then read by the Chairman, Rev. O. C. McCulloch, Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis (page 70).

The Committee also presented written reports from the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo (page 73), the Poughkespsie Charity Organization Society (page 76), the Union for Home Work, Pittsfield, Mass. (page 77), the Charity Organization Society of Newport, R. I. (page 78), the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York (page 80), the Terre Haute Society for Organizing Charity (page 84), the Syracuse Bureau of Labor and Charities (page 84), the Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis (page 85), the Associated Charities of Boston (page 87).

Appended to these reports was a series of answers to questions submitted to them by the President of the Conference (page 90).

Reports from other societies were then made, as follows:

The Associated Charities of Cincinnati, by A. C. Shattuck, Secretary of the Society (page 102).

The Detroit Association of Charities, by Richard R. Elliot, Secretary of the Society (page 104).

A discussion at this point was participated in by Mr. Levi L. Barbour, of Detroit, a member of the Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities (page 111), by Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri (page 112), by Rev. O. C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis, Secretary of the Charity Organization Society (page 113), by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, Inspector of Charities (page 113), and by Dr. C. R. Putnam, of Boston, Vice-President of the Associated Charities (page 113).

The President here suspended the regular order, and

introduced United States Senator Z. B. Vance, of North Carolina, who addressed the Conference (page 114).

Reports from societies were then continued as follows:

The District of Columbia Associated Charities, by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, one of the Board of Managers of that Society (page 117).

The Associated Charities of Milwaukee, by Major W. J. Dawes, a delegate from that Society (page 120).

The Philadelphia Society for Advancing Charity, by Dr. J. W. Walk, Secretary of that Society (page 121).

A discussion at this point was participated in by Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin (page 125); by Dr. J. W. Walk; by Rev. Dr. T. P. Haley, of Missouri (page 125); by Mr. L. L. Barbour, of Michigan (page 126); and by Dr. C. R. Putnam, of Massachusetts.

A report was then made by Hon. C. S. Fairchild, of New York, for the Charity Organization Society of New York City (page 126).

This was discussed by Gen. Thomas Taylor, Chief of Police, of Louisville (page 128); by Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of Philadelphia; and by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts.

The Conference then took a recess till evening.

FOURTH SESSION.

TUESDAY EVENING, September 25, 1884.

The report from the State of Indiana was made by Very Rev. A. Bessonies (page 130).

The report of the State of Missouri was made by Bishop C. F. Robertson (page 132).

Rev. J. W. Bachman, of Chattanooga, reported for the Associated Charities of that place (page 139).

This was followed by a brief discussion by the President of the Conference (page 140); by Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio; by Hon. C. S. Fairchild, of New York; by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina, and by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts.

In the absence of Rev. S. H. Gurteen of Chicago, who had been advertised to speak upon the subject of Charity Organization in Cities, brief addresses were made as follows:

The Need of Charity Organization, by Dr. J. W. Walk, Secretary of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity (page 141).

The Principles and Methods of Charity Organization, by Mr. Levi L. Barbour, of the Detroit Associated Charities (page 143).

The Value of Registration and Investigation, by Hon. C. S. Fairchild, of the Charity Organization Society of New York (page 144).

This was discussed by Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio (page 146); by Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, of Missouri; by Dr. M. F. Coomes, of Kentucky (page 147); by Gov. Charles Anderson, of Kentucky; by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (page 147); by Hon. M. D. Follett, of Ohio (page 147).

The Work of District Committees was presented by Rev. O. C. McCulloch, Secretary of the Indianapolis Charity Organization Society (page 148).

This was discussed by Bishop Robertson, of Missouri, and by Mr. C. S. Fairchild, of New York.

The General Results of Charity Organization were presented by Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity (page 149).

This was discussed by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, of Missouri; Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania, and Mr. James Matthews, of New York.

The President of the Conference announced the Committee on Place of Next Meeting, as follows:

Alabama — Dr. Peter Bryce.
Arkansas — George E. Dodge.
Colorado — Mrs. J. S. Sperry.
Connecticut — Rev. C. H. Bond.
District of Columbia — Mrs. Sara A. Spencer.
Florida — Judge J. G. Knapp.
Georgia — Dr. T. O. Powell.
Illinois — Dr. J. C. Corbus (Chairman of the committee).
Indiana — John H. Holliday.
Iowa — Mrs. B. J. Hall.
Kansas — Miss Jennie Campbell.
Kentucky — T. C. Tucker.
Louisiana — Prof. Wm. Preston Johnson.
Maryland — Dr. John Morris.
Massachusetts — Dr. Chas. R. Putnam.
Michigan — Levi L. Barbour.
Minnesota — Judge A. H. Young.
Mississippi — Dr. T. J. Mitchell.
Missouri — Judge J. W. Henry.
Nebraska — Prof. J. A. Gillespie.
New Hampshire — J. C. Ray.
New York — Dr. C. S. Hoyt.
North Carolina — Hon. J. C. Scarborough.
Pennsylvania — Philip C. Garrett.
Rhode Island — Stephen R. Weeden.
South Carolina — Capt. N. F. Walker.
Tennessee — Hon. C. R. McCree.
Vermont — W. G. Fairbank.
Virginia — Rev. R. W. Credlin.
Wisconsin — Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks.

The Businesss Committee then reported an order of proceedings for Wednesday, which was adopted.

The Conference then took a recess till the next morning.

FIFTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, September 26, 1883.

The Conference was opened with prayer.

The report from the state of Iowa was made by Jennie McCowan, M. D., a state delegate (p. 151).

The report from the state of Oregon, by Rev. Dr. G. H. Atkinson, in his absence, was presented by the President of the Conference.

The report from the state of Tennessee was presented by Rev. J. W. Bachman, a state delegate (page 158), and discussed by Rev. H. H. Hart, Secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities, and by Judge J. C. Ferris, of Tennessee.

The state of North Carolina reported through Hon. J. C. Scarborough, State Superintendent of Public Instruction (page 160).

This was discussed briefly by Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri (page 162), by the President of the Conference (page 162), by Dr. C. S. Hoyt, Secretary of the New York State Board of Charities (page 162), and by Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform (page 162).

The Standing Committee on Crimes and Penalties then reported through its Chairman, Mr. Z. R. Brockway, Superintendent of the Reformatory Prison at Elmira, N. Y. (page 163).

A paper was then presented by Judge A. H. Young, of Minnesota, on Reformation in Penal Treatment (page 177).

A paper was then presented by Miss E. A. Hall, Superintendent of the Michigan State Industrial School for Girls, on the Reformation of Criminal Girls (page 188).

The papers were then discussed by Capt. W. D. Pat-

terson, Superintendent of the Cleveland House of Correction (page 199), by Hon. Richard Vaux, President of the Eastern Pennsylvania Penitentiary (page 202), and by Mrs. S. A. Spencer, of the District of Columbia.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

SIXTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, September 26, 1883.

The report from the State of New Jersey was presented by the chair without reading, in the absence of the delegation from that State (page 205).

Mrs. J. K. Barney, of Rhode Island, presented the work of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union in relation to Jails and Police Stations (page 210).

A paper by Miss E. M. Moshier, M. D., late Superintendent of the Women's Reformatory Prison at Sherburne, Massachusetts, was read in her absence by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Inspector of Charities in Massachusetts (page 211).

A paper was presented by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of the Ohio State Board of Charities on the Post Penitentiary Treatment of Criminals (page 216), accompanied by a letter from T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of Gloucestershire, England (page 229).

A paper was then presented by Hon. J. W. H ener Justice of the Supreme Court of the State of Missouri, on Aid to Discharged Prisoners (page 230).

These papers were then discussed by Rev. Dr. J. G. Wilson, of Missouri (page 238); by Ex-Gov. L. P. Blackburn, of Kentucky (page 238); by Gen. Thomas T. Taylor, chief of police, of Louisville (page 242); by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, chairman of the Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities (page 242); by Dr. John Mor-

ris, of the Maryland Prisoners' Aid Society (page 243); by Dr. Charles Cadwalader, of the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons (page 244); by Mrs. M. E. Cobb, Superintendent of the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls (page 244), and by Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, President of the Illinois Industrial School for Girls (page 248).

On motion of Hon. M. D. Follet, of Ohio, a committee of five were constituted to consider the advisability of memorializing congress to send delegates to the International Prison Congress, to meet at Rome in October, 1884, and also to consider the advisability of recommending the appointment of delegates by states.

The president appointed as such committee:

Hon. M. D. Follet, of Ohio.
Judge A. H. Young, of Minnesota.
Judge J. W. Henry, of Missouri.
Judge W. F. Bullock, of Kentucky.
Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of New York.

The conference then took a recess till evening.

SEVENTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY Evening, September 26, 1883.

Dr. H. Z. Gill, Physician of the Southern Illinois Penitentiary, read a paper on the State Prisons of the United States (page 249).

Mr. George W. Cable, of Louisiana, read a paper on the Convict Lease System in the Southern States (page 265).

These papers were then discussed by the President of the Conference (page 301), by Rev. Dr. J. G. Wilson of Missouri, by Gov. Charles Anderson of Kentucky (page 301), by Dr. J. W. Walk of Pennsylvania (page 304), by Dr.

H. Z. Gill, of Illinois (page 304), by Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio, Secretary of the State Board of Charities (page 305), by Mr. E. C. Carrigan, of Massachusetts (page 305), by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, Inspector of Charities, and by Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of New York.

The Committee on Place of the next meeting reported recommending Washington. The consideration of this report was deferred until the next day.

The Business Committee reported an order of business for Thursday, which was adopted.

EIGHTH SESSION.

THURSDAY MORNING, September 27, 1883.

The Conference was opened with prayer by Rev. O. C. McCulloch, of Indiana.

The State of Minnesota reported through Rev. H. H. Hart, Secretary of the State Board of Corrections and Charities (page 308), to which Hon. D. W. Ingersoll added a brief statement, respecting the State Reform School.

A letter was presented from Mr. E. R. Highton, of California, which was referred to the Publication Committee (page 313).

A letter was presented from Mr. Ira. H. Sturgeon, of Missouri, which was referred to the Publication Committee (page 314).

A letter was received from Mr. Eugene Smith, Secretary of the Prison Association of New York, which was referred to the Publication Committee (page 316).

The State of Nebraska then reported through Dr. H. P. Matthewson, Superintendent of the State Hospital for the Insane, and a state delegate (page 317).

Mr. Wm. Haight, one of the United States Inspectors of prisons, then reported upon the prison work of the United States Government (page 319).

This report was discussed by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina (page 321); by Rev. J. H. De Bruin, Chaplain of Ohio Penitentiary (page 321); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania; by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, Chairman of the Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities.

The Conference then proceeded to take up the report of the Committee on Place of the next Conference.

Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin, moved to amend the report, by striking out Washington and inserting St. Louis.

The motion was discussed by Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri; by Gov. Charles Anderson, of Kentucky; by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, of the District of Columbia; by Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, of Missouri; and by Dr. J. C. Corbus, of Illinois.

The amendment was adopted, and St. Louis was fixed as the place of meeting of the next Conference.

The Committee on Memorial to Congress reported progress.

Dr. T. S. Bell, of Kentucky, then addressed the Conference at the request of the President (page 322).

Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, of Missouri, then presented a paper on Hebrew Charities During the Middle Ages (page 323).

The Standing Committee on Preventive Work among Children, reported through their Chairman, Hon. W. P. Letchworth, President of the New York State Board of Charities (page 336).

A communication from C. F. Coffin, of Indiana, respecting the International Conference on Child-Saving Work, to which he was a delegate, with a copy in

French, of the conclusions of the conference, were presented in his absence. (See appendix page 488).

Judge John C. Ferris, of Tennessee, then presented a paper on placing children in homes. (Page 336).

This was discussed by Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, President of the Illinois Industrial School for Girls (page 341), and by Judge J. F. Lewis, of Tennessee, representing the Girls' Industrial Home, of Knoxville (page 343).

Hon. W. P. Letchworth then presented a paper on Classification and Training of Children, Innocent and Incorrigible (page 344).

Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, President of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That Hon. Wm. P. Letchworth, Chairman of the Committee on Preventive Work among Children, of the Tenth National Conference of Charities and Correction is hereby requested to complete, if practicable, the inquiry already begun by said Committee into the extent, character, and present needs of Child-saving and Preventive Work among Children, and to present the information gathered to the next Conference in a suitable report.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

NINTH SESSION.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, September 27, 1883.

The Conference met at 3 P. M., in the chapel of the Louisville House of Refuge, with the officers and inmates of that institution.

The Conference was welcomed to the institution by ex-Governor L. P. Blackburn, and the children were addressed by the following gentlemen:

Hon. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois, President of the Conference.

Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina, Superintendent of the Masonic Orphan Asylum.

Rev. C. H. Bond, of Connecticut, Superintendent of the Industrial School for Girls.

Gen. John Eaton, U. S. Commissioner of Education.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, a former President of the Conference.

Frederick Collins, one of the Managers of the Philadelphia House of Refuge.

Judge John C. Ferris, of Tennessee.

Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, President of the previous Conference.

The Conference was then provided with a lunch in the dining hall of the institution, and took a recess until evening.

TENTH SESSION.

THURSDAY EVENING, September 27, 1883.

The Conference met in the chapel of the Louisville House of Refuge.

Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin, moved that a committee of seven on Organization of the Next Conference be appointed. Which motion was carried, and the President appointed the following gentlemen as such Committee:

Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin.
Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, of New York.
Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts.
Dr. Charles E. Cadwalader, of Pennsylvania.
Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio.
Judge J. W. Henry, of Missouri.
Rev. J. W. Bachman, of Tennessee.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts:

Resolved, That in the death of Dr. Harvey B. Wilbur, of New York, the Conference of Charities loses one of its earliest, most active and most valued members, who in his own specialty stood foremost, and whose wide acquaintance with other specialties made his suggestions and criticisms of the highest worth to inspire, to correct, and to continue in action, those practical measures of administration upon which the success of a public charitable system depends.

Upon this resolution the following remarks were made:

Mr. SANBORN, of Massachusetts: Dr. Wilbur was at the head of the most important establishment for the care of idiotic children in the country, and perhaps in the world, the New York Asylum at Syracuse. It grew out of his efforts as a young man. He was at the head of it until he died, and in his hands it became a model institution, first-class in all respects. All of the details of the institution were familiar to him; he had a mind for the most minute detail of administration. He was familiar with the systems of management practised not only in his own State but throughout the world. He was one of the persons by whom this Conference of Charities was organized in 1874. No matter what branch of charitable work he was engaged in, he threw his whole soul into it, and was foremost, not only in his own specialty, but in other branches of our work. Those who knew him knew that he was a person upon whom you could depend. When you had the confidence of Dr. Wilbur, you had it for all time, and no matter where he might be, if you went to him for his services you had them and had them entirely.

Mr. LETCHWORTH, of New York: I knew Dr. Wilbur very well, and it was through that intimacy and acquaintance that I came to respect and to love the man for his conscientiousness and the higher traits of manhood. This conscientiousness he carried with him, both in his public and private life. It made him a very faithful public servant. He was a man of advanced ideas, and while conservative, he was ready to accept everything that was recognized as being for the best, or that was in his judgment wise, or seemed to commend itself to his mind as of value. He was a valuable man to the State of New York and we deplore his loss. I find it very

gratifying to me to know that his worth is appreciated elsewhere as well as in his own State.

Dr. Hoyt, of New York: My acquaintance with Dr. Wilbur began fully thirty years ago, and for the last fifteen years I knew him intimately and frequently visited and came in contact with him. He had scores and scores of children under him, and of hundreds of children who went to him, whom I have seen, I never saw one whose good feeling towards the Doctor was not apparent when his name was mentioned. In addition to being a close and economical manager of his institution and managing it to the satisfaction of his state, he was a careful student of other branches of social science. His paper at Saratoga, some eight or nine years ago, on the subject of the insane and their employment, has been received with universal approval by the heads of insane asylums in the United States. He was among the first to advocate a greater freedom for the insane, in other words, the open asylum system, which is now very largely accepted. I am glad the resolution has been offered, and hope that it will be passed unanimously.

Mr. Letchworth, of New York: To give an instance of his great kindness, when we were taking the children out of our county almshouses, I had one little boy with whom I did not know what to do. I wrote to Dr. Wilbur about him. The little boy had been there a great many years and could not walk. Dr. Wilbur at once wrote, saying that he wanted that little boy. We sent him to Syracuse, and about a year and a half afterward, when I was visiting the institution, going through the school, the little fellow got up and stepped forward in the aisle and caught hold of my hand and said, "Don't you know me?" I said, "No;" and Dr. Wilbur said, "That is the little boy whom you sent me." He was walking, with two good limbs under him. Dr. Wilbur had taken him and made him a useful and strong child, and educated him to be self-supporting.

Gen. Brinkerhoff of Ohio: I would add my personal tribute to the memory of Dr. Wilbur. When I first came into this work on the Board of State Charities, in Ohio, I felt the need of experience, and took a trip east, and visited Dr. Wilbur in his asylum at Syracuse, and there gained my first knowledge in regard to the non-restraint system in the care of the Insane. He talked to me about it, and sent me papers that he had written on that subject, and gave me my first information in regard to that most advanced system in the treatment of the insane. I soon became convinced that he

was right about it, and from him, more than any other man, I received my impressions and instructions in regard to the treatment of the insane which is now being rapidly adopted in various states, and which has been adopted almost wholly in my own State.

THE CHAIRMAN: My idea is that Dr. Wilbur was one of those strong men who come to the front in whatever work elicits their interest and sympathy. He was one of the foremost men of the times in his conception of the proper treatment of the insane. I don't think he ever had a selfish motive. He was thoroughly conscientious and devoted to the work in which he was engaged.

The resolutions were then adopted unanimously, by a rising vote, and the Secretary was requested to send a copy to his family.

REV. H. H. HART, of Minnesota, reported the death of E. W. Chase, Superintendent of Poor in the city of St. Paul. He said he had done much to organize a system of public charities in Minnesota.

THE CHAIRMAN said that those who met him last year at Madison knew his worth, and had some idea of the loss Minnesota had sustained in his death.

The discussion upon the papers presented at the morning session was then resumed, and was participated in by Mr. Levi S. Fulton, Superintendent of the Western New York House of Refuge (page 358); by Dr. John Morris, of Maryland (page 359); by Mr. James H. Fay, one of the managers of the New York City House of Refuge (page 359); by Rev. L. Cooley, of Ohio (page 362); by Frederick Collins, one of the managers of the Philadelphia House of Refuge (page 363); by James V. Watson, one of the managers of the Philadelphia House of Refuge (p. 365); by Hon. Chas. S. Fairchild, of New York, President of the State Charities Aid Association; by Rev. James Matthews, of New York (page 375); by Mr. Henry Oliver, Superintendent of the Cincinnati House of Refuge (page 375); by Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of the Pennsylvania State Board of Charities (page 375); by the Presi-

dent of the Conference (page 376); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (page 376); by Mr. Z. R. Brockway, Superintendent of the New York Reformatory Prison; by Mrs. M. E. Cobb, Superintendent of the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, and by the Hon. W. P. Letchworth, President of the New York State Board of Charities.

The Business Committee reported a programme for Friday, which was adopted.

On motion of Hon. M. D. Follett, of Ohio, the thanks of the Conference were returned to Mr. Caldwell and the Trustees of the Louisville House of Refuge, for their entertainment of the Conference.

The Conference then took a recess till morning.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

FRIDAY MORNING, September 28, 1883.

The Conference was opened with prayer by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan (page 377).

Dr. John Morris, of Maryland, of the Prisoners' Aid Society, made a brief additional report from Maryland (page 377).

Dr. Peter Bryce, of Alabama, reported briefly for that state (page 378).

Mr. W. G. Fairbank, presented a report from Vermont (page 379).

Gov. Chas. Anderson made a report for Kentucky (page 385), which was discussed by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina (page 387), by Rev. Dr. J. G. Wilson, of Missouri (page 387), by Mr. South, of Kentucky (page 387), and by Mr. Peter Caldwell, of Kentucky.

The report of the State Institutions of Wisconsin, was filed without reading by Mr. Lewis A. Proctor, a mem-

ber of the State Board of Supervision of Wisconsin Charitable, Reformatory and Penal Institutions (page 388).

Dr. H. Wardner, Superintendent of the Illinois Southern Hospital for the Insane, read a paper on the Cure of the Chronic Insane (page 393).

This was discussed by Dr. P. E. Griffin, Superintendent of the South Carolina Lunatic Asylum (page 404), by Dr. Peter Bryce, Superintendent of the Alabama Insane Hospital (page 404); by Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform (page 405); by Dr. R. S. Dewey, Superintendent of the Illinois Eastern Hospital for the Insane (page 405), and by Rev. H. H. Hart, Secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities (page 405).

The report of the Standing Committee on the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, was then presented by Dr. Isaac L. Peet, Superintendent of the New York City Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb (page 406).

This was discussed by Mr. Amasa Pratt, Superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb (page 422), by Prof. J. L. Noyes, Superintendent of the Minnesota Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and Blind (pape 422).

The Committee on Organization presented the following report, which was adopted:

OFFICERS.

President—Hon. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, Buffalo, N. Y.

Vice President—Rt. Rev. C. F. ROBERTSON, St. Louis, Mo.

Recording Secretary—Prof. A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.

Secretaries—Charles S. Hoyt, M. D., Albany, N. Y.; P. Caldwell, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. H. H. Hart, St. Paul, Minn.

Honorary Secretary—Rev. J. L. Milligan, Allegheny, Penn.

Corresponding Secretaries—Rev. J. K. Mason, D. D., Fryeburg, Me.; Joseph B. Walker, Concord, N. H.; W. G. Fairbank, Vergennes, Vt.; Joseph A. Allen, Westborough, Mass.; Lewis B. Smith, Nayatt,

R. I.; George E. Howe, West Meriden, Conn.; Philip C. Garrett, Philadelphia, Penn.; E. M. Hunt, M. D., Trenton, N. J.; Rev. T. Gardiner Littell, Wilmington, Del.; Rev. A. G. Byers, Columbus, O.; Very Rev. August L. Bessonies, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, Evanston, Ill.; W. J. Baxter, Lansing, Mich.; Hon. H. H. Giles, Madison, Wis.; D. C. Bell, Minneapolis, Minn.; L. D. Lewelling, Mitchellville, Ia.; ex-Gov. J. P. St. John, Olathe, Kan.; Mrs. J. S. Sperry, Pueblo, Col.; Judge John W. Henry, Jefferson City, Mo.; Daniel Gober, M. D., Frankfort, Ky.; Dr. Peter Bryce, Tuscaloosa, Ala.; Dr. T. J. Mitchell, Jackson, Miss.; John C. Ferris, Nashville, Tenn.; ex-Gov. A. H. Colquitt, Atlanta, Ga.; Mrs. C. F. Ainslie, Richmond, Va.; Hon. G. W. Thompson, Wheeling, W. Va.; Hon. William R. Stewart, New York City, N. Y.; Gen. John B. Irwin, Lancaster C. H., S. C.; Dr. H. V. Lucas, Tallahassee. Fla.; J. H. Mills, Oxford, N. C.; Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, Washington, D. C.; C. S. Griffith, Baltimore, Md.; George E. Dodge, Little Rock, Ark.; Hon. James McConnell, New Orleans, La.; Hon. L. Bradford Prince, Santa Fe, N. M.; E. R. Highton, Alameda, Cal.; J. A. Gillespie, Omaha, Neb.; Rev. Dr. G. H. Atkinson, Portland, Ore.; Gen. M. M. Bane, Salt Lake City, Utah; ex-Gov. J. W. Hoyt, Cheyenne, Wyo.; Theodore D. Kanouse, Woonsocket, Dakota.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

On Reports from States.—Rev. Fred. H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.; Rev. J. L. Milligan, Allegheny, Penn.; Prof. A. O. Wright, Madison, Wis.; Rev. Dr. J. G. Wilson, St. Louis, Mo.

On Charity Organization in Cities.—Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, New York City; Dr. C. R. Putnam, Boston, Mass.; Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks, Milwaukee, Wis.; J. R. Sypher, Philadelphia, Penn.; Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, St. Louis, Mo.; Prof. Francis Wayland, New Haven, Conn.; Miss M. A. Ross, Chicago, Ill.; Richard R. Elliott, Detroit, Mich.; Hon. W. F. Bullock, Louisville, Ky.; T. Guilford Smith, Buffalo, N. Y.

On the Organization and Management of Reformatories and Houses of Refuge.—Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, Ft. Howard, Wis.; Rev. W. G. Eliot, D. D., St. Louis, Mo.; Z. R. Brockway, Elmira, N. Y.; Israel C. Jones, Randall's Island, N. Y.; Levi S. Fulton, Rochester, N. Y.; H. L. Hoguet, New York City; E. M. Carpenter, New York City; Joseph A. Allen, Westborough, Mass.; Wm. H. Neff, Cincinnati, O.; R. C. Davis, Louisville, Ky.; C. H. Bond, Middletown, Conn.; Jas. V. Watson, Philadelphia, Penn.; F. M. Howe, Sockanosset, R. I.; W. G. Fair-

bank, Vergennes, Vt.; Solon Kendall, Geneseo, Ill.; Geo. E. Howe, West Meriden, Conn.; C. A. Johnson, Salem, Mass.; Gardiner Tufts, Palmer, Mass.; D. W. Ingersoll, St. Paul, Minn.; James H. Eastman, Jamesburg, N. J.; J. D. Scouller, M. D. Pontiac, Ill.; Rev. B. W. Chidlaw, Cleves, O.; Hon. Charles Reemelin, Cincinnati, O.

On the Organization and Management of Prisons and Penitentiaries.— Ex-Gov. Charles Anderson, Kuttawa, Ky.; Rev. A. G. Byers, Columbus, O.; Col. T. J. Lipscomb, Columbia, S. C.; Chas. F. Coffin, Richmond, Ind.; Miss Clara Barton, Washington, D. C.; Hon. Richard Vaux, Philadelphia, Penn.; Judge A. H. Young, Minneapolis, Minn.; Judge John W. Henry, Jefferson City, Mo.; W. J. Hicks, Raleigh, N. C.; ex-Gov. David H. Jerome, Saginaw, Mich.; Gov. Robert Lowry, Jackson, Miss.; Eugene Smith, New York City.

Police System and Administration.— F. L. Jenkins, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Gen. Thomas H. Taylor, Louisville, Ky.; Elmer Washburn, Chicago, Ill.; Hon. John W. Andrews, Columbus, O.; Mrs. J. K. Barney, Providence, R. I.

On Organization and Management of Poorhouses.— Hon. H. H. Giles, Madison, Wis.; F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.; Hon. Samuel F. Miller, North Franklin, N. Y.; Hon. George E. McGonegal, Rochester, N. Y.; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, Ohio; W. J. Baxter, Lansing, Mich.; Rev. J. W. Bachman, Chattanooga, Tenn.; Hon. Thomas V. Bryant, Kansas City, Missouri; R. D. McGonnigle, Alleghany City, Penn.

On Provision for the Chronic Insane.— Dr. J. B. Chapin, Willard, N. Y.; Dr. R. C. Chenault, Lexington, Ky.; Dr. J. H. Vivian, Mineral Point, Wis.; Dr. P. E. Griffin, Columbia, S. C.; Dr. R. H. Chase, Norristown, Penn.; Dr. W. B. Goldsmith, Danvers, Mass.; Dr. H. C. Rutter, Columbus, Ohio; Dr. T. R. H. Smith, Fulton, Missouri; Dr. J. A. Reed, Dixmont, Penn.; Dr. Peter Bryce, Tuscaloosa, Ala.; Dr. Stephen Smith, New York City; Dr. George C. Catlett, St. Joseph, Mo.; Dr. W. W. Godding, Washington, D. C.

On Provision for Idiots.— Isaac N. Kerlin, M. D., Elwyn, Penn.; Mrs. C. R. Lowell, New York City; J. K. Ruckenbrod, Salem, Ohio; George G. Tarbell, M. D., Boston, Mass.; W. W. Reed, M. D., Jefferson, Wis.; George H. Knight, M. D., Faribault, Minn.; G. A. Doren, M. D., Syracuse, N. Y.; Hon. H. M. Green, Leavenworth, Kansas; Dr. M. F. Coomes, Louisville, Ky.

On Child-Saving Work.— Hon. C. D. Randall, Coldwater, Mich.; Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, Evanston, Ill.; Miss Elizabeth C. Putnam, 63 Marlboro St., Boston, Mass.; Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, Spring-

field, Mass.; Miss Dora B. Robinson, 44 Court St., Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. L. D. Lewelling, Mitchellville, Ia.; Miss Emily Huntington, 125 St. Marks' Place, New York City; Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, 1902 Vallejo St., San Francisco, Cal.; Mrs. M. J. Telford, Denver, Col.; Mrs. W. N. Sage, 81 Plymouth Ave., Rochester, N. Y.; Mrs. M. E. Rockwell Cobb, Milwaukee, Wis.; Miss Ella A. Giles, Madison, Wis.; Mrs. S. J. Smith, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs. B. J. Miles, Eldora, Ia.; Mrs. H. Wardner, Anna, Ill.; Mrs. M. E. Cooley, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Miss A. K. Irving, Charleston, S. C.; Fred. N. Owen, 52 West 51st St., New York City; John H. Mills, Oxford, N C.; Rev. C. L. Brace, 19 East 4th St., New York City; Rev. H. H. Hart, St. Paul, Minn.; Hon. John C. Ferris, Nashville, Tenn.; Rev. R. W. Credlin, Portsmouth, Va.

*Local Committee.**—Rev. Dr. W. G. Eliot; Prof. M. S. Snow; Hon. Henry Hitchcock; Hon. Isaac H. Sturgeon; Capt. Silas Bent; Hon. George Partridge; Edwin Harrison; Samuel M. Kennard; Hon. Peter S. Foy; Hon. James E. Yeatman; Hon. Wm. C. Ewing; Hon. J. O. Broadhead; Hon. E. O. Stanard; Charles Gibson; Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein; Hon. Albert Todd; Andrew Leslie; Sylvester H. Laflin; G. E. Leighton; Prof. C. M. Woodward; G. V. Schenck, M. D.; J. M. Leete, M. D.; Chas. A. Todd, M. D.; Charles E. Briggs, M. D.; Hon. Henry Overstolz; Joseph Franklin; Richard M. Scruggs; Samuel Cupples; Wallace Delafield, Isaac M. Mason; Rev. Dr. W. W. Boyd; Rev. Dr. S. J. Niccolls; Rev. Dr. C. L. Goodell; Rt. Rev. C. F. Robertson; Rev. Dr. J. G. Wilson; Rt. Rev. P. J. Ryan; Very Rev. Edward A. Higgins; Wm. G. Hammond, LL. D.; Hon. G. A. Madill; Rev. Dr. Truman A. Post; A. Frank.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

TWELFTH SESSION.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, September 28, 1883.

A few minutes were given to miscellaneous discussion, participated in by Hon. John C. Scarboro, of North Carolina (page 424); by Dr. M. F. Coomes, of Kentucky (page 424); by Mr. Thomas, of Kentucky, by Mr. O. Huse, of

*NOTE — A few changes in the membership of Committees have been made since the adjournment of the Conference, which are embodied in the above list. Prof. M. S. Snow, 2800 Olive St., St. Louis, is Secretary of the Local Committee, to whom all communications respecting local arrangements should be addressed.

Illinois (page 424); by Rev. Dr. J. G. Wilson, of Missouri (page 425); by Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, of New York (page 425); by Mr. W. J. Baxter, of Michigan (page 425); by Mr. M. M. Campbell, of Indiana; by Mr. W. G. Fairbank, of Vermont (page 425).

The discussion on the education of the deaf and dumb was then continued from the morning session, and was participated in by Prof. J. A. Gillespie, Superintendent of the Nebraska Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb (page 426); by Miss Mary McCowen, of the same institution (page 427); by Dr. M. F. Coomes, of Kentucky (page 427); by Prof. J. L. Noyes, Superintendent of the Minnesota Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and Blind (page 427); by Dr. W. J. Scott, of Ohio; by the President of the Conference, by Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, and by Dr. C. R. Putnam, of Massachusetts.

The report of the Committee on Preventive Medical Charities was then presented by the Chairman of the Committtee, Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (page 428).

A paper on "First Aid to Injured," prepared by Mr. John B. Pine, of New York, Secretary of the Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured, was read in his absence by Judge C. E. Kincaid, Sr. (page 428). This paper was discussed by Dr. W. F. Thoms, of New York, President of the American Humane Society.

A paper upon Congregate and Segregate Buildings for the Insane was presented by Dr. R. S. Dewey, Superintendent of the Illinois Eastern Hospital for the Insane (page 441).

This paper was discussed by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff of the Ohio State Board of Charities.

Hon. M. D. Follet, of Ohio, presented a report from the special committee on memorializing Congress to appoint delegates to the International Prison Congress

to be held at Rome in October, 1884, recommending that a memorial be adopted to Congress for the appointment of Commissioners, and also that the Governors and Legislatures of States be requested to send delegates.

Upon motion of Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, the report was adopted.

Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina, spoke in reference to the prison system of his State (page 456), and Hon. J. C. Scarboro, of North Carolina, said a few words (page 457).

On motion of Dr. Walk, of Pennsylvania, the President and Secretaries of the Conference were added to the committee on memorializing Congress and the State governments in regard to representatives at the International Prison Congress, and the committee was continued with power to act in the recess of the Conference.

The report of the State of South Carolina was presented by Col. T. J. Moore, one of the State delegates, (page 457), including reports of several State institutions by the Superintendents, who were present, and were referred to the Publication Committee without reading.

A report by Mrs. Angie F. Newman, upon Jail and Prison Work of the Women's Christian Temperance Union in Nebraska, was referred to the Publication Committee without reading (page 460).

A report of the New Hampshire State Industrial School was presented by Mr. J. C. Ray, the Superintendent, and was referred to the Publication Committee without reading (page 463).

The Conference then took a recess till evening.

SECTION MEETING.

CHILD-SAVING WORK.

On Friday, September 28, at 3 P. M., a number of ladies and gentlemen, specially interested in child-saving work, met in one of the committee rooms adjoining the council chamber. Hon. W. P. Letchworth, chairman of the committee on Preventive Work among Children, presided.

Dr. C. R. Putnam, of Massachusetts, read a paper prepared by his sister, Miss E. C. Putnam, one of the trustees of the State Primary and Reform Schools, on the System of Visiting the Girls and Smaller Boys who are wards of the state of Massachusetts (page 477).

Mrs. M. E. Cobb, superintendent of the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, presented a paper on Preventive Work among Children (page 480).

Rev. C. H. Bond, Superintendent of the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls presented a paper on How We Place Out Girls in Connecticut (page 481).

A general discussion was had upon these papers.

THIRTEENTH SESSION.

FRIDAY EVENING, September, 28, 1883.

Prof. A. O. Wright, Secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, made a statement in regard to remarkable cures of filthiness in chronic insane in Dodge County Asylum, in Wisconsin.

Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, offered the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, By the National Conference of Charities and Corrections of the United States, that T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of Hardwicke Court, Gloucester, England, be invited to visit this country, and attend the annual session of the Conference next year, in the city of St. Louis.

Resolved, That this action is not only an expression of our desire, but a recognition of the influence which Mr. Baker has had in moulding, by his writings and his correspondence, the views of the Conference upon the important subjects which have came before us for our consideration.

Upon this resolution Mr. Letchworth said a few words, and the President of the Conference spoke as follows:

Mr. Wines, of Illinois: Mr. Baker was an intimate friend of my father. I had the pleasure of meeting him in the International Prison Congress at Stockholm. I think I have never seen a man of purer character or of a more elevated type of Christianity. His influence is great, not only in England but upon the Continent. He has written many letters to members of this Conference; and some of the ablest papers read before us at this meeting were inspired by him. He has been connected with all the great movements in the old world looking towards prison reform. He is also a valued member of the British Social Science Association. He is in very bad health, and it is hardly possible that he can survive the winter. I earnestly hope that he can be with us next year at St. Louis, and that we may have the benefit of his great knowledge upon these all-important subjects.

Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin, moved that the officers of the Conference be instructed to correspond with members, and with the local committee of arrangements, in relation to the time of holding the next conference, which was agreed to.

Mr. Peter Caldwell, Superintendent of the Louisville House of Refuge addressed the Conference (page 465).

Prof. A. O. Wright, Recording Secretary of the Conference, and Chairman of the Publication Committee, read a report of the finances of the Conference as follows:

To the National Conference of Charities and Corrections:

The accounts of the Conference as audited by the Publishing Committee, are as follows:

Expenses of publication of proceedings of the Conference, 1882	$881 60	
Receipts from sale of proceedings	1000 70	
Excess of receipts over expenses		119 10
Deficit of previous year paid		85 00
Net surplus on hand		34 10
Subscriptions received for next year's proceedings:		
In quantities		1,376
In single numbers		100
Total thus far		1,476

With these subscriptions it is safe to print 2,000 copies of the proceedings of the Conference of 1883.

Respectfully submitted,

A. O. WRIGHT,

For the Publication Committee.

Some time was then given to closing remarks.

Hon. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois, President of the Conference, spoke briefly and called upon Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, President-elect, who thanked the Conference for the honor (page 469).

The following resolutions were offered by the Business Committee, through the Chairman, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio.

Resolved, That the thanks of this Conference are kindly tendered to the citizens of Louisville for the generous and hospitable treatment extended to us everywhere, since we have been among them.

To the Governor of the State, the Mayor of the city, to the Local Committee and to the Trustees of the Louisville House of Refuge, and to Mr. Caldwell, the Superintendent of that institution, our acknowledgements are specially due and are hereby extended.

Also to the Managers of the Southern Exposition for their invitation to visit their wonderful exhibition of the products of the South; to Mr. Bennett H. Young for the free use of Polytechnic Hall; to the Superintendents of the Louisville City and the Louisville & Nashville Railways for courtesies extended to us, and also to the Mayor and General Council of the city for the use of the Council Chamber.

Upon these resolutions remarks were made by Mr. Philip C. Garrett of Pennsylvania (page 469); by Prof. A. O. Wright of Wisconsin (page 470); by Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt of New York (page 470); by Rev. C. H. Bond of Connecticut, by Mr. F. B. Sanborn of Massachusetts (page 470); by Rev. Dr. Wilson of Missouri (page 471); by Col. T. J. Moore of South Carolina (page 471); by Dr. C. R. Putnam of Massachusetts (page 471); by Hon. H. H. Giles of Wisconsin (page 471); by Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks of Wisconsin (page 472); and by Mr. W. G. Fairbank of Vermont (page 472).

The resolutions were then adopted by a rising vote, unanimously.

Hon. Albert S. Willis, Representative in Congress from the Louisville district, was then called upon to address the Conference, which he did (page 472).

Judge W. F. Bullock, of Kentucky, was then called upon to make the closing address, which he did (page 473).

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, moved to instruct the Secretaries to act as a Publishing Committee, and suggested that the portrait of Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin, President of last year's Conference, be put into the proceedings. The motion was carried.

The Conference then adjourned to meet in St. Louis on the call of the officers.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

TENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS,

Held at Louisville, Kentucky, Sept. 24–30, 1883.

PART II.

ADDRESSES, PAPERS AND DEBATES.

ADDRESSES, PAPERS AND DEBATES.

OPENING SESSION.

MONDAY EVENING, September 24, 1883.

The Tenth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections met in the Library of the Polytechnic Society, at Louisville, Kentucky, Monday evening, September 24th, at 8 P. M., and was called to order by the President FRED. H. WINES, of Springfield, Illinois.

Rev. E. T. PERKINS, of Louisville, Kentucky, opened with prayer, as follows:

Most Gracious God, our kind and Heavenly Father, we pray Thee, that of Thy great goodness Thou wilt grant unto us the blessed presence of Thy Holy Spirit to guide us in all our deliberations touching the things that are right, and to enable us to do those things which are well pleasing in Thy sight. We pray that thou wouldst make the words of our mouths and the meditations of our hearts in the connection in which we are assembled here to-night, acceptable in Thy sight, conducive to Thy glory, and such as will promote the welfare of our fellowmen. Hear us, in this our prayer and supplication, for the sake of Thy dear Son, our Blessed Lord and Savior Jesus Christ. Amen.

The President introduced the Hon. CHARLES D. JACOB, Mayor of the city of Louisville, who said:

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: Louisville has indeed been blest. Fifty-four days ago she welcomed to her midst the President of the United States, who formally opened an Exposition dedicated to the regeneration of the South, and countless thousands from every

section have visited and christened it with the love of an undivided and indivisible people.

Last week there was a convention of teachers, true and brave men, who sought by advising among themselves, the best method of advancing our common good by driving from our midst ignorance, which begets crime. To-night inaugurates a Conference of great intelligence, and with a name and object as high and pure — a Conference that while it demands that those who violate the laws of God and man shall be punished with the severest penalty known to the law, yet demands that with that punishment shall be added means to reform the man.

More than eighteen hundred and fifty years ago, sitting upon the mountain side, with His disciples and the public at His feet, the God-man said, "Blessed are the merciful for they shall obtain mercy." Ages with great works have passed and crumbled away before the relentless hand of time, but those wondrous words will shine fully as bright as the noonday sun to the end of time.

Ladies and gentlemen, recognizing you as the embodiment of that sentiment, we welcome you to our midst, to our hearts and homes, and bid you God-speed in your noble and worthy cause.

The Hon. J. Proctor Knott, Governor of Kentucky, then welcomed the Conference as follows:

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Tenth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections: Among the most beneficent results of modern civilization are the various charitable and reformatory institutions which have been established by municipal legislation to ameliorate the condition of certain unfortunate classes of our fellow beings. A nobler object could not challenge the attention of patriots, philanthropists or Christians than to open the avenues of intelligence, usefulness and happiness to those who are doomed to grope their way through this beautiful world in perpetual darkness from the cradle to the tomb; or to extend social and intellectual

enjoyment to those to whom the gentle voice of affection is mute, and the sweetest melodies of nature forever harsh; or to throw around those in whom the light of reason has gone out the tenderness of parental care and protection; or to rescue the convict from the vortex of crime and introduce him to the paths of virtue, while at the same time satisfying the demands of justice and vindicating the majesty of the law.

And certainly no sublimer moral spectacle could be exhibited than that which is presented in this large convocation, assembled to-night from every part of our country, with no expectation of personal advantage, with no hope of reward beyond the gratification of helping suffering humanity, to consider the methods best calculated to promote the efficiency of the means ordained for the accomplishment of those beneficent purposes.

In the object of your Conference the people of this commonwealth are deeply interested. Beyond the benefits conferred upon the unfortunate recipients of their bounty and of their corrective discipline, and aside from the resulting advantages to the community at large they contribute hundreds of thousands of dollars for the maintenance of their charities and the punitive and corrective institutions, which every dictate of common prudence as well as every demand of justice requires should be expended in the manner best calculated to insure the most beneficial results.

It is therefore with the very highest possible gratification that I greet you in their name and extend to you a cordial welcome to our midst, conscious, however, that I but feebly voice the sentiment of every genuine Kentuckian, when I express the hope that your lives may be crowned with perpetual peace, prosperity and happiness, and that your visit to our beautiful and prosperous metropolis, so famous for its generous men and beautiful and cultured ladies, may be as pleasant as the results of

your own deliberations will be beneficial to the cause of enlightened charity and suffering humanity.

The PRESIDENT: I am sure that it will give pleasure to the members of the conference to have the generous sentiments which have been uttered, both by the governor of the state and by the mayor of this city, responded to by some of the members of our body.

Mr. FRANK B. SANBORN, of Massachusetts, being called upon, spoke as follows:

We accept your welcome, Governor Knott, and Mr. Mayor, with the same sincerity that it is given, for we know the Kentuckians of old, even if we have not all had the pleasure of visiting your magnificent commonwealth before. The Arab chieftain said, "I love the Englishman, his word is as straight as my spear," — and we know that Kentucky talks as straight as she shoots, and means what she says.

We are glad to be here, Mr. Mayor, and to know from your lips, and from the presence of this audience, that it is not merely a personal hospitality you extend to us — in which, we have heard that no Kentuckian was ever wanting — but better than that, a hospitality to our cause, which is the sacred cause of the poor. We have assembled here, sir, not merely to see what you can show us of the arts and industries of the south, though we shall take pleasure in that, but that we may meet and confer with the men of the south, and with the noble-hearted women of the south, on the best methods of helping the poor, of healing the sick, of ministering to the minds diseased, of preventing or alleviating the worst miseries of modern life.

"That which is crooked cannot be made straight," said the wise king of Israel; "and that which is wanting cannot be numbered." But we are pledged to straighten what we can in these crooked paths of civilization, and to make good what is wanting and defective. We shall fail often times, we shall make mistakes and arouse crit-

icism; but what we ask of you, ladies and gentlemen, what we ask of each other is, that your criticism shall be inspired by the same purpose that we hope animates us; the desire and purpose (God helping us), to leave the world better than we found it, and better especially for that helpless, and voiceless, and almost hopeless class of the public dependents for whom we are called by duty to speak and act.

If I might venture, from a twenty years' service in the cause of the poor, to give a word of advice to those who hear me, sir, it would be this, to avoid most carefully the intrusion of any but charitable motives into the great field of charity, and particularly to exclude political and personal ambition and prejudice from this sacred work. Let the politician and the self-seeker stand aside; they are not likely to help forward our work, and in Heaven's name let them not hinder it.

I thank you, gentlemen of Kentucky and of Louisville, in the name of Massachusetts, for the welcome you have extended to us, and I only wish there were more representatives of my own noble and philanthropic state here to receive it.

The Hon. RICHARD VAUX, President of the Board of Inspectors of the Eastern State Penitentiary, Philadelphia, also spoke, as follows:

I only wish to express the gratification I feel at Mr. Sanborn's speech. It was such a relief to my mind when he sat down.

After the Governor's remarks and the Mayor's remarks and Mr. Sanborn's answer, the purpose of the meeting is somewhat in doubt. It occurred to me when the name of the place was given, that those who originated the city of Louisville as the place of meeting of this society thought it necessary for us to see your institutions, and instruct you what charities and corrections were necessary. Mr. Sanborn disputes that. He says we do not come here for that purpose. We know that you are a

large-hearted, intelligent people, and, therefore, there was no design in coming here, that we should be considered as setting ourselves up as examples, and I ask you not to do as we do, but to do as we say.

I feel comfortable in the city of Louisville. I can walk about your beautiful streets and see the wonderful improvements going on every day, and I find that you have great charities in your midst, sustained by yourselves, of which you make no parade.

Mr. JOHN H. MILLS, of North Carolina, also spoke, as follows:

In coming to this Conference, I passed through two ranges of mountains and through a great many tunnels; and I thought of the little child with no teeth to bite and no clothes to keep him warm, no instrument to defend himself, no power to walk, and not even to crawl for a long time after he was born; and after a while that little child goes to the mountain and digs a hole through it and runs a house through it. But we have come to look at the other side of the question. We come to devise the best means of helping those who cannot help themselves. That song that you last sung was beautiful—"Who Was His Neighbor?" The Levite, when he saw that poor man, way down on that lonely road, where the robbers attacked him, far from the world, lost sight of his charity. The priest, likewise, was willing at any time to make a display of his piety, but here he also passed by on the other side, when it became necessary to aid this his fellow-man, and he left it for the Samaritan to help him. I believe, from what the Bible says, he was a commercial traveler; for he had wine and oil with him, his credit was good, and he stopped at the best hotels. That man took a quiet place and way to do good in.

There was a great general once who heard of a person who was healing the sick, and he went to him to be cured, and when he got to the school-house where he was teaching, he expected that he would come out and

make a display and pass his hands over him and go through some strange expressions, and the old school-teacher told him to go dip himself seven times in an old filthy river. The general wanted to do something big and the old teacher told him to do something small.

That is the characteristic of these conventions. They go to different places each successive year, in order that they may do good to those who are disposed to benefit by them.

Now, for instance there is a large class of children of feeble intellect. They cannot be taught in an ordinary class at school, because it requires a peculiar way to impart knowledge to them. But a large number of that class, with the proper treatment and teaching can be taught to earn their living. The object of this convention is to devise the best means for their education.

There is a man confined in jail. There is nothing for him to do but read. There is no one to talk to him, nobody to preach to him, nobody to sympathize with him in his trouble. He may be innocent of the offense charged. The object of this convention is to see how the condition of that man can be improved.

It is natural for youth to be rash and inconsiderate. Sometimes you see a party of young men go out at night together on a lark. They may be of fine character. After a while, when they are on some little mischief, the police catch them and put them in among the thieves, who have been there for many years. One of the objects of our conference is to induce the people of our land to be thoughtful and considerate with these young men and to provide reformatories for them, so that they may be reformed and restored to society. I do hope that all who are here will take a deep interest in these matters; and I especially desire your best endeavors for the young boys and young girls.

I did not get up to make a speech, Mr. President, but I must say that I am glad to see the people of this

city take such an interest in the object of the convention. I am glad to see such a large delegation coming from the north and south. I am satisfied, from what I saw of the convention last year, that this Conference is a body not seeking to distinguish themselves, but to do good to the human race and to help those who have no other help, and I hope that that spirit will permeate us all, so that we may be able to feel that we belong to one common race and one common brotherhood.

Judge KNAPP, of Florida, said:

I came in here as a listener. I did not come to make a speech. I did not know that your convention was in session, until this afternoon, when I was informed by my brethren the commissioners for Florida at the exposition, that we were requested by our governor to be here; and then, again, I did not expect that I was to be singled out by them or anybody.

Besides we are so far removed, that we do not know what you are here for. What your object is I gather from what I saw thirteen years ago when the legislature of Wisconsin passed the act creating a board of charities. Since I have been in Florida I have forgotten these things. Probably we are so far off and have so many alligators that we have forgotten everything. But one thing I want to say, that we have not as many mosquitoes as Louisville, and our alligators are more afraid of us than we are of them, and if we get very hungry, we can make a meal off an alligator, and it is not so bad, either, for I have tried it.

Our state prisons are not full, because we have none, so our prisoners are employed on the railroads. Whether the death-rate is as great as I read of in Alabama, Tennessee or Georgia, I do not know. In my opinion one thing is certain, and that is, that it is a very bad plan, and I hope some day that Florida will reform, and that, as our governor has told us to attend this meeting, that we may learn something to report to him.

The PRESIDENT: We have with us this evening Senator Williams, of Kentucky, and we would be glad to have a few words from him.

Hon. JOHN S. WILLIAMS, U. S. Senator, from Kentucky, spoke as follows:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: I had no expectation of saying anything to you; and I know I can say nothing that will instruct. I understood there was to be a meeting here for some charitable purpose, and I came around to see what it was. I came to know what is the purpose of this Conference; and I do not feel that I comprehend the scope of your organization sufficiently to say anything that can be of any use to you whatever. I can only say that I have discovered in the last ten minutes that yours is a charitable association as broad as the world itself; that it covers every kind of suffering; that it extends a helping hand to the helpless, to the infant, to the refugee, to the criminal, to the blind, to all who are without friends, and without homes and without money. In such a purpose as this my heart responds fully, and I am with you heart and soul, and whatever can be done by my personal influence or public character is at the service of this association.

I hope to attend your other meetings and learn more fully the meaning and intention of your Conference. I hope you will excuse me from making a speech.

The president then delivered the annual address.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

By FRED. H. WINES, Springfield, Illinois.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference of Charities and Corrections: I know of no more difficult task than that of building a country; and this is the task in which all Americans who live to any purpose are engaged.

The great mass of us are employed in developing the material resources of the country; a few are looking after its intellectual and moral development, in science,

art and religion; and all of us pay more or less attention to its social and political organization, if only to grumble that both are not better than they are.

But we are so accustomed to the burden of responsibility and of effort which we have to bear, that unless we stop to think of it, we scarcely realize its magnitude. Our task is rendered harder, first, by the great extent of our territory, the immense distances which separate us from each other; next, by the heterogeneous character of our population; then by our peculiar political organization, — the subdivision of the nation into states, independent of each other, and possessed of many of the attributes of sovereignty — which renders uniform and even united action at times difficult, if not impossible, and which also makes it difficult to know in any one state what all the other states are doing; and to these difficulties I may add a fourth, namely: the too great prevalence of a notion that political office is an end, rather than a means to an end, which results in the appointment or election of many men who are but poorly qualified for the special work which they have to do.

Now, I know of no branch of this great task of country-building in which the difficulties to be surmounted present themselves more clearly to the mind than that with which our Conference is specially concerned — the organization of public and private charity.

There are political and social doctrinaires who deny the necessity for organized relief, or for any interference with social evils on the part of the state, and who profess to be anxious that all help extended to those who need it should be "relegated to the domain of private relations," and be given only by individuals to individuals. On this subject a great deal of romantic nonsense is current on the lips of men who only partly comprehend what they are talking about.

That there is a demand for relief of some sort is undeniable, so long as human ignorance and passion and error continue to produce want and misery and crime upon earth. Help must be given, sometimes even to those who do not deserve it. It is not always a question of what we owe to others, but of what we owe to ourselves. We can not stand by and see the tide of insanity, idiocy, pauperism and crime rising, without trying to rescue from drowning those whose retreat we see to be cut off. To restrain the operation of this natural instinct would be to do violence to our common humanity, and the reaction could not be other than injurious.

The proper objects of relief, the extent of relief, the form

of relief and the mode of relief are later questions and admit of various answers. We are probably agreed that no man should receive help who does not need it; and that no more help should be given him than just so much as is requisite in order to enable him to help himself; and that the best form of aid for those able to work is employment; and that in granting relief regard should be paid to the moral effect of it upon the recipient. These are axioms in the administration of charity; the art of relief consists in their judicious application in particular cases.

But with respect to the special question whether charity, to be genuine and efficacious, must always be impulsive, or at least individual, I have some suggestions to offer for your consideration.

The assumption that it should be so is in opposition to universal usage, which I have been taught to respect, as the practical expression of the thought of a multitude of minds viewing a subject from all sides and not from the single point of view of a theorist entangled in the meshes of his own logic. In all the states of this union, and in every nation in Christendom, so far as I know, some organized system exists for the relief of misfortune, which is a pretty conclusive proof that there is a real demand for such organization.

It is difficult to see how certain classes, such as the insane, could be properly cared for without organization, both to secure the requisite funds and to insure the insane themselves such attention as skilled physicians and attendents, experienced in the manifestations of insanity, can alone bestow.

Within certain limits, relief in some formis a right; the bestowal of it is merely a recognition of the universal right of existence. This is true of paupers who have a settlement and can claim support under it. In a less obvious sense it is true of the deaf and dumb and the blind; if the state provides the means of education for all her children it is surely unfair that these, who need it more than any, should be excluded from it.

Or if relief is based not on right, but on expediency, it is surely a wise policy on the part of the state to provide for the special training of juvenile delinquents in separate establishments for this purpose, rather than to herd them with older criminals in prisons for adults.

I mention these cases by way of illustration only, and not with any view of exhausting the subject. It might, or it might not, be better that some or all of the establishments created for these and similar ends should be

maintained at private, and not at public expense. Even then they require supervision and control on the part of the state to prevent them from becoming hiding places of cruelty and imposture.

But it is the grossest misrepresentation of the truth to speak of the institutions created by the states, acting through their respective legislatures, to meet an acknowledged public want, as though they had been created for the benefit of one class, and were maintained at the expense of another, and to attribute their existence to the meddlesome interference of would-be regulators of morals and manners. The truth is, that they are maintained by the state, or all of us, for the benefit of all of us; if not, they have no right to exist. So long as insanity exists there will be receptacles for the insane; so long as blindness exists in children there will be schools for the blind; so long as pauperism exists there will be poor-houses; so long as crime exists there will be prisons. These institutions imply combined action on the part of a portion or of the whole of the communities in which the evils to be remedied are found, and there are many arguments which might be urged in favor of the state assuming the responsibility of such action, such as economy, efficiency, equity, convenience, thoroughness, etc., upon which I will not dwell.

At all events, we find the system in operation and have been called upon to administer it. This annual Conference is primarily an official consultation as to the best methods of discharging our trust. We here exchange ideas and experiences, in the hope of learning from each other what we do not know or are not sure about, in order that our own impressions and plans may be confirmed, matured and corrected. There is great value in discussion, and talk must always precede action.

There is also great value in acquaintance. The man who works alone works at a great disadvantage. By mutual contact we kindle the affections, gain confidence in each other, prepare the way for concerted action, and when we act, act with increased intelligence, energy and courage.

In estimating the value of these meetings we ought to remember that our publications constitute a permanent historical record, and the only comprehensive record in existence of the movement with which we are connected, viewed as a unit, proceeding from one source and tending to one end, under the operation of a natural law, to which, if we act wisely, all our action must conform.

This record could not, perhaps, be made up in any other way, and its value will increase with the lapse of years.

There can be no doubt in the minds of those of us who are familiar with what has been already accomplished as the result of these gatherings, that an influence has gone out from them far and wide, reaching every portion of the United States, and that their influence has been salutary. Seed has been sown here which has been carried by the winds and sprung up and borne fruit in the most unexpected places. Much of the seed sown lies dormant in the earth, awaiting the moment of germination.

Neither can there be any doubt that their influence is growing and becoming more apparent from year to year. If we can keep our organization free from internal dissension, and prevent it from being used by those who do not properly belong to us for personal or political ends, if we can remain single hearted, large-hearted, unprejudiced, earnest and kind, there is, I believe, no organization in the country which has a brighter prospect of permanent usefulness.

The work which we have to do has various sides.

First of all, it is scientific, in so far as it consists of the systematic collection of facts for comparison, and drawing legitimate deductions from them. We want facts, rather than theories; or, perhaps, it would be better to say that we want theories founded upon facts, and in harmony with them, instead of the crude *a priori* conceptions of men who mistake their own imaginations for reality. We need to correct our own misconceptions and then to correct the misconceptions current in society and in the press, with respect to this branch of human knowledge.

Our work is also philanthropic, in the best signification of that much-abused word. It contemplates and aims at the alleviation of the misfortunes which overtake mankind. We desire to see men protect themselves, and to teach them how they may achieve self-protection. When their own efforts have ended in failure, then we wish to secure for them such help as may be safely given them, without encouraging similar weakness in those who come after them. But I know no body of men anywhere whose opposition to the waste of philanthropic effort is so intelligent as that of this Conference; because we know how great the need of help is, and how difficult it is to procure it for those who have a real claim to it, and we know also how often charitable assistance proves a curse to its objects, sink-

ing them into degradation and teaching them habits of pauperism, or, in other words, to rely upon those who are stronger, instead of relying upon themselves.

I may say, therefore, that we are engaged in a great economic work. So far from our function being merely to bring about a redistribution of capital, taking money from the pockets of the producer to lavish it upon the consumer, we have our part to do in the accumulation of wealth for the use of posterity, by finding the points at which the forces of humanity are dissipated, and checking the process of waste through deterioration. Our task is to diminish the amount of the burden which mankind has to carry and so save expense. It is our duty to scrutinize the demands made upon capital in the name of charity, to detect and expose sham charities, to point out the futility of methods which have often been tried and found ineffectual, to invent better methods to take their place. We are under obligation to investigate with care the causes of crime and misfortune, in order to ascertain whether by arresting the operation of the cause, we may not also prevent the effect. The so-called philanthropist who, in the excess of his zeal to relieve sufferiug where he sees it, fails to reflect at whose expense it is to be relieved, and would sacrifice the interest of the entire community for that of a class, and especially of an inferior class, has misunderstood his vocation. The pauper has no claim to be considered before the industrious artisan, nor the criminal before an honest man; and the principle which I have just enunciated applies to other kinds of misfortune as well. This is not the popular notion of a philanthropist, but it is the true one.

I alluded, in the opening of this address, to the connection of our work with the general work of organization, which absorbs the thoughts and the energies of all men who comprehend the historical position of our country, and desire to take part in shaping its future. Individual effort for the relief of suffering is noble, and it is essential that all relief should at last assume that form. Individuals need it, and individuals must carry it to them. But he is a poor student of history and of political philosophy, who does not know that vicious legislation is the mother of wretchedness, while wise and wholesome laws prevent the growth of evils which might otherwise destroy the vitality of a nation; so that the thoughtful study of the effect of legislation upon human happiness may benefit more individuals than could be reached by the utmost effort of any one person for a lifetime. Good laws are a bequest to future generations.

Our connection with the legislation of the country is extremely intimate, and those of us who are on state boards of charity have a great responsibility. Our first aim should be to prevent suffering, and after that to relieve it.

But the organization of relief can be no hindrance to individual efforts any more than it can be a substitute for it. The creation of a relief fund can be an evil, only when the fund provided is excessive or is misused. The organization of establishments in which those who need special treatment or training can receive it, is not an evil, if the establishments are really needed and are properly planned and managed. No wrong is done, when officers are appointed to take charge of these establishments, if the officers appointed are qualified for their positions, and are not removed without cause after they learn to discharge their duties. It is not only right, but necessary, that the officers so appointed should be held to a strict accountability and that some agency should be provided to which they must render an account. Yet this is all that there is in any system of state charity and correction. It is not an organization which needs to be abolished, but to be perfected and purified. To learn how it may be perfected, what are its defects and how to remedy them is one of the principal objects which we have in view in coming together at this time.

Here, at this meeting, public opinion has the opportunity to express itself, where the expression will affect legislation and the policy of states. We stifle the voice of no man; we open our ears to every sound, come from what quarter it may; we allow public opinion to shape itself, only taking care that it be a well-informed and not an uninformed opinion; then, by our discussions, by our publications, and by the agency of the delegates who return to their homes and make report, we disseminate and render it fruitful.

The greatest peril we have to encounter is the danger of falling into what may be termed social quackery. There are educated as well as uneducated quacks, of course, but the essense of quackery is always the same; it is a real or pretended belief in the efficacy of nostrums to cure disease or to avert disaster. It is easy to get a view of the social system from some one point of view, to perceive clearly some one evil which afflicts mankind, to see in that one evil the root of all others, and to delude oneself into the conviction that, if resort were only had to some particular measure or favorite pre-

scription, it might be possible to put an end to the wickedness and iniquity which infects our blood.

Numerous illustrations occur to me, but I fear to name them, lest I should initiate a profitless debate. Nothing is plainer, however, to an attentive observer than the subtle connection which exists between the parts of the social organism, the logical interdependence of their relations and the immensity of the possible consequences which may follow any injudicious interference. In society as in the case of the individual, it is often wise to trust to the *vis medicatrix naturae*; or, if the emergency will not admit of this, then we ought at least not to experiment too boldly with so delicate an apparatus, lest we derange its mechanism. We have no right to rush in where angels fear to tread. Before professing to have mastered the problem of social therapeutics, let us be sure that we know something about social anatomy and physiology, to say nothing of social pathology, for I strongly suspect that a good deal is regarded by some people as an evil which is really no evil, which reminds me of the fable of the hen and her brood of ducks, whom she would not allow to go into the water, lest they should drown.

Ladies and gentlemen, I thank you for your attention, and congratulate you upon the prospect of an interesting and profitable meeting. It is a great pleasure to us all to meet each other again, in the beautiful city of Louisville and in the hospitable state of Kentucky. We have received a cordial welcome; let us hope that when we part with our new friends, we may be remembered as kindly.

At this meeting very excellent music was furnished by a choir of boys from the Louisville House of Refuge.

SECOND SESSSION.

TUESDAY MORNING, Sept. 25.

The conference met in the City Hall, and was opened with prayer by Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri.

A letter was read from Hon. R. B. Hayes, ex-President of the United States, recently elected president of the National Prison Association, expressing his sympathy with the object of the Conference, and his regrets at not being able to be present.

The report of the Standing Committee on the work of Boards of State Charities, was read by the Chairman, Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE WORK OF BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

The report of the standing committee on Work of Boards of State Charities, first appears in the proceedings of the Eighth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections, 1881.

PAST REPORTS.

It may be well to glance at what has been already presented through the committee.

1881 — Hon. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, chairman, separating these boards into two classes, presented a brief abstract of the organic powers and functions of their boards as existing in nine states. By a comparison of their powers and duties, it appears that in some, advisory powers only are granted, as in Ohio and Michigan, while in others full administrative powers are added, as in Rhode Island and Kansas. Another distinction is that in some of the states supervision is given over charities only, while in others corrections also are included.

From the presentation of experiences and opinions, the writer formulates three governing ideas.

1. That in every state the best interests of its charitable and correctional institutions demand the inspection and supervision usually exercised by what are known as Boards of State Charities.

2. That the powers of such boards should be advisory rather than executive, and that their purpose, in the main, should be to keep the public and the legislature fully advised of the condition and needs of the institutions submitted to their supervision.

3. That the best service for these boards is an unpaid service, and hence no compensation to members should be permitted beyond the reimbursement of traveling and other necessary expenses.*

At this conference, a paper was also read on "The Utility of State Boards of Public Charities," by Mr. George S. Robinson, president of the Illinois board. The paper is an exhaustive treatise on the work of a board, with suggestions such as only large experience could supply.†

In the conference of 1882, the chairman of the committee, Judge G. S. Robinson, was absent owing to recent affliction, and no formal report was presented by the committee. Prof. George I. Chace, of the Rhode Island board, read a paper on the proper functions of Boards of State Charities and Corrections, and some of the qualifications requisite for the successful discharge of these functions. The paper and discussion brought out the peculiarities of the Rhode Island board, which is really composed of the boards of trustees and the board of charities united in one body.‡

PLAN OF THE REPORT.

The chairman, acting on the suggestion of the chairman of the Conference, has issued a list of questions prepared by Dr. Wines, to the several State Boards, and has received answers from all.

The information thus conveyed will be briefly presented, with such comments as may be suggested.

STATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

The response to the question

(1.) "What are the State Charitable Institutions in your State?"

Which has been properly construed to include all juvenile reformatories and pauper institutions, shows that asylums for the insane exist in all the states having boards:

Rhode Island provides for only the incurable insane, except by assisting a private institution.

*Proceedings 1881, pp. 37–50.
† Proceedings 1881, pp. 58–76.
‡ Proceedings 1882, pp. 19–36.

Massachusetts has an Asylum for the Chronic Insane.

Wisconsin provides for the insane partly through county asylums, of which we will speak further.

The legislature of *Michigan* at its last session provided an Asylum for the Criminal Insane. *New York* has such an asylum attached to Auburn Prison.

Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio, Rhode Island, Michigan, Minnesota have Schools for the Deaf and Dumb.

Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, Minnesota provide for the blind.

Illinois, Ohio, Minnesota for the feeble-minded.

Illinois, Ohio have Soldiers and Sailors' Orphan Homes.

Ohio has twenty Childrens' Homes.

In *Rhode Island and Massachusetts* is the State Alms House.

Illinois has The Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary at Chicago.

Michigan has a State School for Dependent Children, from which they are sent to permanent homes.

Pennsylvania has a Hospital for Injured Persons in the Anthracite Coal Region.

In the department of Juvenile Reformatories, *Wisconsin, Ohio, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Michigan, Pennsylvania* provide for both sexes.

Illinois, Minnesota for boys only.

THE PRISONS AND OTHER STRICTLY PENAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE STATES HAVING STATE BOARDS.

It is deemed only necessary to mention such Institutions of an exceptional character as the Prison for Women in Massachusetts.

It seems almost as if one Institution is no sooner established than it develops the need of another. A reformatory for youth, develops the need of more classification than can be made under one management, and even permanent provision for deeply depraved offenders. A school proposing to place children in family life, gradually fills up with a class who from bodily, mental or moral condition, cannot be thus disposed of, and must be returned to the wretchedness from which they were taken, or else another Institution must be established. The Asylum for the Insane is naturally averse to receiving those who have been within prison walls, or who have escaped sentence as irresponsible, and the Asylum for Insane Criminals becomes a necessity, and perhaps a greater need, the separation of the chronic insane. The refuge for imbeciles as its numbers increase, must dismiss

to other custody its adults or children. These are only illustrations.

Well that the Christian charity of the State, for Christian it is, does not weary. There is truth in what has been said, "Side by side with the growth of institutions of charity, hospitals, refuges, asylums, orphanages and the like — rises the growth of a pauperism which is at once the perplexity of the philanthropist and the dismay of the tax payer. Multiply folds and shelters as fast as we will, the children multiply still faster who are to fill them." *

With this increase of numbers, is the diversity of condition, yet the principle, that the impotent members of society must be cared for by the stronger recognized, State aid is the result, and that aid must take form from the suffering. What shall be the limit is a nice question, but the necessity for its decision, and consequently for its discussion, has scarcely come except in a few of the older states.†

STATE AID TO NON-STATE INSTITUTIONS.

(2.) Does the State extend aid to Charitable Institutions not owned nor controlled by the State? If so, to what Institutions?

Wisconsin — To thirteen County Insane Asylums, also to three private Industrial Schools. For many years no aid has been given to private benevolent institutions.

Massachusetts —To School for Feeble Minded, Boston; Infant Asylum, Roxbury; Eye and Ear Infirmary, Boston.

Ohio — The Toledo Asylum for Insane is owned by Toledo and the State, and pays for the inmates. The State also pays for a part of the inmates in the Toledo House of Refuge. Longview Asylum is owned by Cincinnati, but the State has partial control and pays for inmates.

Illinois — The State extends no aid to any charitable institutions not owned and controlled by the State. It does, however, make a small appropriation annually, from the State School Fund, to the Board of Education of the city of Chicago, in aid of the day school for deaf mutes maintained by said board.

Rhode Island — It does not, except that it makes an appropriation (for 1883 $15,000,) for the support of the insane poor at the Butler Hospital, a curative institution and for the support and education of deaf, dumb, idiotic and

* Rev. H. C. Potter, D.D., Discourse on Internationalism, p. 144.
† Dr. Wayland's Moral Science "Poor Laws."

blind persons, as authorized by existing laws. This is because the State has no curative asylums for the insane and no institutions for the care of the other classes of dependents named.

Michigan and Minnesota extend no aid.

Pennsylvania — To the Training School for Feeble Minded Children, three Institutions for the Blind, two Institutions for instruction to the Deaf and Dumb and to the House of Refuge in Philadelphia. Under a recent Act of Assembly the cost of maintenance in Insane Hospitals is to be equally divided between the State and counties.

As matter of financial advantage, the State might extend her aid to a benevolent Institution established by individuals or a church, the right of visitation being secured. This would make provision for certain classes in their own locality as in a city, and relieve the State Institution. A small class of dependents might thus be advantageously separated from the large body, as semi-mutes, children or adults needing surgical treatment.

It is decidedly for the interest of the State, to encourage the establishment of eleemosynary institutions. Her burden will be sufficiently heavy with all humanity and religion may secure.

As such Institutions are generally under the control of some religious body, this excludes aid from the public treasury.

MAINTENANCE OF THE INSTITUTIONS.

(3.) How are the Charitable Institutions in your State maintained, viz: by (*a*) direct appropriations from the State Treasury, (*b*) or by charges against Counties, (*c*) or Individuals? And what portion of their means comes from each of these sources?

Wisconsin — The Insane Asylums receive $1.50 a week and the cost of clothing from individuals, if able to pay, if not, from counties. The balance of cost, including the whole cost for buildings comes from the state treasury.

Ohio — By direct appropriations from the state treasury only.

Massachusetts — All except lunatic hospitals by direct appropriations. Lunatics who have settlements paid for by towns if paupers, unsettled paupers by state, $3.25 per week per capita.

Illinois — The state charitable institutions of Illinois are maintained wholly at the expense of the state treasury, except that inmates are charged for their clothing

and incidental expenses, and these bills are paid either by their friends or by the counties from which they are admitted. A trifling amount is realized from the sale of farm products and waste materials or manufactured articles. One of the state institutions — the hospital at Elgin — has a fund of $32,000, derived from a bequest, the interest of which alone is available. About seven per cent. of their total income is derived from other sources than the state treasury. No charge is made against any person whatever, residing in the state of Illinois, for board, tuition or treatment, in any one of the ten institutions named.

Rhode Island — By direct appropriations from the state treasury, except that the cities and towns pay for the maintenance of the insane who have legal settlements therein, the insane of the cities and towns all being cared for at the state asylum, that is those who are believed to be incurable. The board of a small number of the insane is paid by relatives or friends. On January 1, 1883, 165 inmates of the asylum were supported by the state, and 140 by the cities, towns and relatives.

Minnesota — All the charitable institutions are maintained by direct appropriations from the state treasury, except that parents of children in the school for idiots and imbeciles are required to pay not exceeding $40 per year for clothing, if able. If the parents are not able, the county from which they are sent is required to pay this amount.

Michigan — Principally by direct appropriations from the state. Pauper insane having a settlement in counties are charges upon their respective counties for two years after admission to the asylum, after which time they are state charges. Insane patients possessed of sufficient property, are supported at private expense. As to the proportion paid from each of these sources it is difficult to estimate with accuracy, but as nearly as we arrive at the facts we should say that private patients pay about two-thirtieths, counties pay about eleven-thirtieths, and the state pays about seventeen-thirtieths.

Pennsylvania — The state institutions are maintained by direct appropriations from the state and by charges against the counties for the indigent class. Wealthy persons are required to pay the entire cost of maintenance.

The question is here suggested, whether the state should put all proper inmates of her institutions, on the same basis of entire support. The principal exception to

this is believed to be in the case of the insane competent to self-support. It is difficult to say, why a line should be drawn here, unless the ground taken is that insanity is a condition of temporary inability. It would seem that one policy should prevail in a state.

RELATION OF THE STATE BOARD TO FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT.

(4.) What relation does the State Board sustain to the financial management of the Institutions? (*a*) Does it control expenditure? (*b*) Or audit accounts? (*c*) Are the vouchers filed with the State Board? (*d*) Does it make up the estimates or budget on the basis of which appropriations are made by the Legislature?

Rhode Island replies — "The Board does control expenditure; the vouchers are not filed with the State Board. The vouchers, after verification from the ledger of the Board and certification, are sent to the treasury for payment, where they remain. All purchases are entered on the books of the Board at once from memorandum bills, charged to the proper account and credited to the parties with whom the business was transacted, the Board having a complete record of its finances. The Board makes an estimate of expenditures for the year."

Massachusetts — The Board does not control expenditure, audit accounts nor are vouchers filed with the Board. It only gives its judgment to the legislature on the estimate made by trustees for annual appropriation.

Wisconsin — "The State Board of Charities and Reform has the power of inspecting and reporting and recommending. The State Board of Supervision has the direct control of the six state institutions, as a board of trust.

Illinois — The State Commissioners of Public Charities have no direct control of the expenditures of the state institutions; that is in the hands of the several superintendents and local boards of trust. Nor do they, in the strict sense of the word, audit their accounts. Duplicate copies of all vouchers, are, however, filed in the office of the State Board, accompanied by a classified, itemized abstract of the same, and a transcript of the treasurer's ledger, for three months past; which are examined, and when found to be correct, the certificate of the Board, countersigned by the governor, is filed in the office of the state auditor of public accounts; without this certificate, the auditor cannot issue his warrant on the state treasurer for the next quarterly installment of the annual ap-

propriations. Upon the basis of these quarterly reports to the State Board the estimates are framed which practically govern the action of the legislature in making appropriations for the ensuing two years.

Ohio — The State Boards of Charities sustain no relation to the financial management.

Minnesota — Our Board has no relation to financial management, except to investigate and expose abuses.

Michigan —All estimates, whether for current expenses or for special purposes, such as building, repairing, etc., made by the Special Board in charge of any Institution with a view to asking Legislative appropriations, must be submitted to the State Board of Corrections and Charities for examination and report as to the necessity or expediency of the Legislature granting the amounts asked for, etc. The Board visits each Institution and carefully examines and reports to the Board asking the appropriation, its opinion thereon, with its reasons therefor, makes such suggestions as in their judgment seem appropriate, etc. This Report must be presented to the Legislature by the Board asking the appropriation, together with their estimates. It does not control expenditures. It does not audit accounts. The vouchers are not filed with the State Board. It does not make up estimates, but reports its opinion thereon as above stated.

Pennsylvania —The State Board does not control expenditures, but examines accounts and reports expenditures to the Legislature, vouchers are filed in the Auditor General's office. The Board makes up the basis on which appropriations should be made.

While these questions are suggested to draw out information, we can scarcely see how a Board of Charities could stand in the financial relation to several Institutions, the possibility of which they seem to imply. It would demand a Bureau that could be sustained only by a much ampler provision than is made by any State. And it is questionable, whether such close surveillance would not take away the responsibility from the Institution Board, as well as create hostility. It is, however, clearly within the province of the Board to prescribe a system of keeping accounts, and accounting for the property of the Institutions, which is in fact the property of the State.

The Laws of Illinois (Act passed April 15, 1875), presents a very admirable plan to meet both these demands.*

It is claimed that "since this system went into opera-

* See Address of Geo. S. Robinson, proceedings '81, p. 61.

tion the per capita cost of maintaining inmates of the State Institutions has fallen from $330 a year to a little over $200, and that the inmates are in every respect as comfortable and as well cared for as they were six years ago." (Above Address, p. 65.)

ANNUAL COST OF MAINTENANCE, ETC.

(5.) What is the average annual cost of maintenance of the institutions under your State Board? How many inmates do they care for annually? What is the average number present during the year?

Massachusetts makes no response.

Rhode Island — In 1882, the net cost of all the Institutions under the charge of the Board was almost exactly $2.00 per week for each inmate. (See Report of 1882, Page 39.) The number of inmates in the Institution January 1, 1882, plus the number committed during that year, was 3,274, (1,236 of these were at the Providence County Jail, an Institution which receives many committed for a brief time to work out fines and costs for drukenness.) The average number in all the Institutions in 1882, 1,110.

Wisconsin refers to a table in the Report of the Board for 1882, which makes the "total cost" for all Institutions, $342,260.30. The number of inmates cared for, 1,912. The average number, 1,894. Average cost, $4.78 a week.

Minnesota — The average annual cost of maintenance, $287,147.66, $4 per week. The average number present during the year, 1,377.

Ohio — Including Longview and Northwestern Asylum, the average annual cost of maintenance of the charitable institutions, $990,072.93. Including the above inmates cared for 1882, 5,811. Average number present during the year 1882, 5,237.

Illinois — The ordinary expenses of the ten Institutions under the supervision of the State Board in the fiscal year 1881, $655,861.79; average population, 3,135; average per capita cost of maintenance, $209.21; in 1882 they were $687,155.81; average population, 3,209; average cost, $214.15.

Michigan — Not including the State Prisons and the cost to the State for prisoners in the Detroit House of Correction it is about $395,000.00. Including the expense of the prisons, about $465,000.00. Appropriations for State Institutions for 1881–2: For current expenses, $301,100.00; for special purposes, building, etc., $608,820.00. Appro-

priations for 1883–4: For current expenses, $370,538.40; for special purposes, building, etc., $419,111.11; aside from the prisons, about 3,060; in the prisons, 1,320; total number, 4,380; aside from state prisons, about 2,486; confined in the prisons and Detroit House of Correction, 1,310; making a total of 3,796.

Pennsylvania — Including County and District Poor Houses, Penitentiaries, County Prisons, Work Houses and House of Correction, $4,477,051.77; maintenance in reformatories less earnings, $160.68; hospitals for insane, $130.81–$558.75; schools for Deaf and Dumb, $257; for Blind, $326.09; for 61 Alms Houses, $16.10–$150.47. The average number of inmates cared for for 1882, 21,149, including Alms Houses.

Desirable as it would be to institute a comparison of expense of maintenance of the same class of wards in different institutions, we doubt whether this is practicable. Even when the items of cost are determined, the factors of number, age, physical condition, labor, locality, care, come in to make the task hopeless. As illustrating this, in a list of nine institutions for children, the cost per capita ranges from $116.07 to $346.04. In the four institutions of Michigan, the variation is from $152.63 to $346.90. The guard against extravagance and waste must be secured, not by comparison of one institution with another, but by the constant inspection of a suitable Board of Control. An institution has cause of complaint when its expenses are criticised from the standpoint of the cost of an institution for a similar class, without regard to its peculiarities.

RELATION OF THE STATE BOARD TO ADMINISTRATION.

(6.) What is the relation of the State Board to the prison and pauper administration? (*a*) Do they inspect the county jails and town or county almshouses? (*b*) Do they collect the statistics of crime and pauperism? (*c*) What special functions do they exercise respecting any of the unfortunate classes? For instance, do they serve as Commissioners of Emigration, or Commissioners in Lunacy? Do they administer relief to state paupers? Do they maintain in connection with their work any visiting agents, and if so, how are they appointed and what are their duties?

Massachusetts — Do not inspect prisons; do inspect town almshouses. Collect the statistics of pauperism. The Board appoints agents for charge of indoor and outdoor poor, lunatics, emigrants, transfer of paupers, etc.

Rhode Island—They are by law required to inspect the county jails at least twice in each year; are not required to inspect other institutions. They do not collect the statistics of crime and pauperism, except so much as is contained in their annual report. They do not exercise any of the special functions named, and do not administer relief to state paupers, the state almshouse being the only means of relief for this class provided by the state.

Ohio—The Board or Secretary visit jails and infirmaries, and collect such statistics as they think necessary.

Wisconsin—The State Board inspects the county jails and town or county almshouses. They collect the statistics of crime and pauperism. They exercise special powers over county insane asylums of giving or withholding state aid, to the extent of $1.50 per week for each inmate. The members and the secretary are the only visiting agents.

Illinois—The duty of inspection of the town and county almshouses and "other places where the insane may be confined" (which we have always construed to mean the county jails and the private institutions for the insane), devolves by law upon this Board; but inasmuch as there are 102 counties in Illinois, and the Commissioners receive no compensation for their services, it is performed by proxy. No provision is made by law for the collection of statistics of crime and pauperism; all that is done in this direction is voluntary, but they receive from the sheriffs and keepers of almshouses monthly returns of the admissions to and discharges from the almshouses and jails. The Commissioners do not act as commissioners of emigration or in lunacy, and the laws of Illinois do not recognize any state paupers. Neither are we authorized to appoint any visiting agents in the counties.

Minnesota—The State Board inspect the county jails and town or county alms-houses. They collect the statistics of crime and pauperism. The Board has the power of investigating abuses, calling up persons, papers, etc. They exercise no special functions respecting any of the unfortunate classes.

Michigan—The Board acts simply as an advisory board, with full powers of inspection, etc. They visit all county jails and alms-houses at least once a year, and as much oftener as they are able. They collect statistics of crime and pauperism. They exercise only the functions named above, and none of those named in this clause. They have an agent in each county in the state, who is appointed by the governor, after careful

inquiry with the view of securing the best possible person for the position. His duties are to examine into the facts of every offense alleged to have been committed by any child under sixteen years of age, against whom complaint has been made before any court or magistrate, inquire as to the parentage and surroundings of the child, and report fully to the court or magistrate, counsel and advise with magistrate as to the punishment or disposition to be made of the case, etc. He also endeavors to secure homes for children in the State Public School, and in the reformatories, looks after and endeavors to secure homes for children discharged from the reformatories on ticket of leave, or on expiration of sentence. He visits all children placed in his county from any state institution at least once in each year and makes quarterly reports to the Board of Corrections and Charities of all his official acts.

Pennsylvania.—The Board inspects state and county, and institutions of incorporated individuals or associations, and collects the statistics of crime and pauperism. The Board serves as commissioners, or the agents of commissioners of emigration and lunacy. Correspondence is kept up with visiting agents or auxiliary county committees who are appointed by the Board. They have the same rights and perform the same duties as the commissioners of the Board.

It seems to be conceded that a State Board should have only advisory powers. Hence it becomes a practical question, what course shall a Board pursue when abuses fall under their notice. On the one hand the evil should be arrested, and on the other it is important to keep the good will of the authorities in immediate charge. A Supervisory Board will at first be regarded with some jealousy, and it must create a relation of confidence and co-operation.

Hence it is well that when practicable, the visitor of the Board shall be accompanied by some person responsible for the management, as the Superintendent of the Poor, or a member of the Board of Control. If pointing out the evil in this way is sufficient, it is the best mode of correction. The public are suspicious concerning institutions, especially of a certain class, as Asylums for the Insane, yet confidence in them is far more healthful than distrust. When this fails or more serious notice seems necessary, the whole board of management may be addressed by letter, or better by interview. The Jails usually present the largest field for complaint, and yet there is no official body before whom it may be hopefully

made. The Board of Supervisors meet only at long intervals, and in so large a body there is very little responsibility. Very likely an active controversy over the county seat makes such complaints not altogether unwelcome. An appeal to the people through the local press remains. It will rarely fail to stir up some kind of feeling. The Board is fortunate if it escapes being called hard names and having the Psalmist's experience, "they laid to my charge things I knew not." But officials will find that they are watched, and though it may be in bad temper, the evils will be more or less remedied. For one class of evils, we know of but this one court of appeal, the replacing the delapidated, inadequate Poor House or Jail, with a suitable building. A Board of Supervisors, with political affiliations and possibly ambition, will rarely venture on even the initiative of a large expenditure, unless they are assured they have the people behind them.

The State Charities Aid Association, of New York, has an admirable system of visiting committees of gentlemen and ladies for poorhouses and jails.

The value of the local committee will depend upon the personnel. Imprudence will be worse than indifference. Jealous neighbors will often interfere with ability and zeal. The appointing power must be intelligent, and in a position to command respect. It would seem the best policy to appoint visiting agents as the proper persons may appear, rather than to venture on creating at once a body of visitors.

LEGISLATION ON SPECIAL TOPICS.

(7.) What legislation on special topics have your Board suggested, or are they endeavoring to secure?

Massachusetts passes over the question and the committee have not had time to peruse the lengthy report for information.

Rhode Island responds, "None."

Wisconsin — The establishment of a school for the feeble-minded, probation officers, severe tramp law, enacted last winter.

Ohio — We make suggestions every year in our report, but as a rule we confine ourselves to such needs as we deem most pressing. Last year we made our leading point the care of the insane now remaining in our county infirmaries. This request was granted by the appropria-

tion of $500,000 for that purpose, and with this we shall provide for at least 1,000 insane. The total number in infirmaries at our last report was 1,080. We also requested authority for the erection of district workhouses for minor offenders, and this also was granted. We also asked for the separation of minors from adult prisoners in our jails, and for the removal of all children under sixteen years of age from county infirmaries, and this also was granted. The law provides that after the 1st of January, 1884, it shall be unlawful to retain any children in the county infirmaries. Our legislature, of late years, has treated our Board with kindly consideration, and we feel greatly encouraged thereby, in our work.

Minnesota — The Board has but recently entered upon its work, having been created at the last session of the legislature, 1882–3.

Illinois — The Board has always paid more attention to the administration of existing statutes than to any attempt to bring about changes in the laws. In their last report they recommended the revision of the law of commitment to hospitals for the insane, so as to repeal the obligation to try every applicant for admission before a jury, in open court, but the legislature took no action upon this subject. In a previous report they recommended separate provisions for the insane convicts, in connection with one of our penitentiaries, and a bill to that effect was introduced, but failed to carry. The amount appropriated to be expended under the observation of this Board, during the next two years is $2,400,000, a considerable part of which is for additional provision for the insane of Illinois.

Michigan — The measures pressed on the attention of the late legislature here were, an asylum for insane criminals, enlargement of the powers and duties of the county agents, an agent for discharged prisoners, an asylum for the feeble-minded and idiotic, a woman's prison, district workhouses and indeterminate sentences. Only the first of these was favorably acted on.

Pennsylvania — The Board has suggested and secured a Lunacy Commission, a law to authorize it to transfer the indigent insane from almshouses to state hospitals at a reduced rate against counties for maintenance, and a law to prevent the admission and detention in almshouses of children over two years of age.

POLITICS IN PENAL AND PAUPER INSTITUTIONS.

(8.) Are appointments of wardens, superintendents, etc., made, avowedly, on political grounds?

Massachusetts — Neither avowedly nor really. All are annually elected by trustees.

Rhode Island — They are not. The secretary adds: "During my connection with the Board for over ten years, I do not recollect to have heard a question asked as to the politics of an appointee of the Board."

Wisconsin — No; that does not enter into the question, except very incidentally, if at all. No charges have ever been made by the opposition that any of the present superintendents were appointed on political grounds, except the warden of the state prison. The superintendent of the Blind Institute is a woman, and the others as well as she, were appointed because of their qualifications, in two cases being brought in from other states. The warden is a competent officer, but the charge was made some years ago that his predecessor was turned out because he was a Democrat, and he appointed because he was a Republican.

Ohio — Yes.

Minnesota — Republicans are appointed, but there has been no change of wardens for eight years; none of superintendent of St. Peter's Hospital for several years, and none, I believe, in any other state institution since its establishment.

Michigan — The party in the minority is usually represented on the boards of the institutions, but the wardens, superintendents, etc., are of the party in power.

Pennsylvania — Not avowedly, but practically they are so made.

(This statement, the representatives of Pennsylvania in the Conference suggested, should be modified so as not to apply to the state institutions.)

The last question suggested is a delicate one, and we can scarcely expect the answers to fully reveal the animus of appointment.

The grand points as we conceive are, that suitable persons should be selected, and that length of service shall depend on efficiency. Now these may be secured while appointments are confined to the political party in power. Any party will furnish wardens, superintendents, and other officials from its ranks, provided they are honestly sought. And so in a State that is so party

ridden, that it is well understood that there is no admission for the best man if in the unhappy minority, there may be no ground of complaint of right men in the right place. Yet it is politics overriding common sense and justice, when fitness for paid or unpaid service has no opportunity until it can pronounce the shibboleth of party. Some States have very wisely, in their Law of State Boards, required appointments from at least two political parties.

We have the evil of politics when a good man is ejected purely for the reason that the election has left him out in the cold, and when the political slate is drawn up simply to satisfy the aspirants and their friends.

Especially as regards our State Institutions their interests demand that the wardenship or superintendency shall be permanent and well paid positions for fit men. We cannot expect men to sacrifice their interests for places when they are poorly sustained or when they may be hastily ejected. A man in such a position should be as firmly secured as an able college professor in his chair. Such positions need study and experience.

A point which has not been fully covered by the questions is of importance, viz.: how the State Boards may reach the general public in the interests of their work. This is not a work to be done in a corner. These are Institutions of the people in the sense of being controlled by public sentiment. They live by the people's money that may be freely tendered or withdrawn. A narrow-minded and prejudiced public will seriously affect them, while a generous intelligent public will build them up to the honor and blessing of the state.

In Wisconsin and Michigan, and probably in other states, an annual Convention of the Board of Charities, our National Conference in miniature, has been found useful. Wider influence may be secured through the Press. An admirable suggestion came from the Conference of 1881: "Let the Board issue little leaflets pertaining to different departments of the work under their care, and distribute them to the press, and they would have the inside track." The bulky reports reach but few, and are rarely read by those to whom they come. We believe that there is a work here for the pulpit, and that penal and pauper matters are in the commission of those who are sent by him who uttered his benediction on all who ministered to the sinner and the sufferer.

The Committee have received the advance sheets of the report of the New York Board, but they have been

unable to give the time necessary to present answers to the questions. They regret that no response has been received from the Boards of Connecticut and Kansas.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

GEO. D. GILLESPIE,
Chairman.

MR. INGERSOLL, of Minnesota: Did I understand the gentleman to say that he advocates the separation of the bad boys in the Reform School from the better class?

BISHOP GILLESPIE: Yes, sir; I said I thought it became a necessity in a large institution.

MR. INGERSOLL: That is a very important matter, and I hope to hear it discussed.

THE CHAIR: It will be.

DR. BYERS, of Ohio: Has there been any reduction made in the cost?

A. Yes; we have worked a great reduction in the cost.

MR. SANBORN, of Massachusetts: It seems to me that the proper function of these Boards is advisory. I should like to call attention to the fact that there are, as in Kansas and Rhode Island, some Boards in existence whose functions are purely administrative. There are also Boards in New York, Massachusetts, and I think in one or two other states, whose functions are largely administrative as well as advisory. In the state of New York these functions have been added since the formation of the Board. While my own judgment is that Advisory Boards are always desirable, and while in some states no other than advisory powers are given, yet the broad experience of each state will lead it to confer administrative powers now in one direction and now in another.

MR. LLEWELLYN, of Iowa: I would like to inquire whether the appointment of State Boards have reduced the members of Boards of trustees. In Iowa we have numerous boards with members ranging from three to six. We seriously contemplate the creation of a State

Board of Charities. I am informed that the Governor will recommend that to the legislature at its next meeting.

MR. WINES: I can answer that in Illinois there has been a reduction of trustees.

MR. LLEWLLLYN: Is it uniform?

MR. WINES: We have only three trustees for each Board. I do not know how it is in other states.

GEN. BRINKERHOFF: In regard to what Mr. Sanborn has said as to advisory or executive powers, I am inclined to the opinion that the report is in the main correct. I have had occasion to study the reports of the action of various Boards in different states, and I am quite sure that it is the general sentiment that the Boards should have only advisory powers. For myself and my Board, I have insisted that a State Board of Charity should have no executive power, for the moment they do they lose to a certain extent their usefulness. Mr. Sanborn mentions Kansas and Rhode Island. Now the Board of State Charities in Rhode Island is in fact nothing more or less than a Board of Trustees. They have entire control over all the charities in the state. There is no Board of State Charities with the functions which a Board of State Charities should have; that is, to look into what was doing and let the people know it. In Massachusetts, the fact that the Board have executive powers has given them trouble.

Mr. GARRETT, of Philadelphia: In reference to what Mr. Sanborn said about Pennsylvania. Until within the last year the Board of Public Charities of Pennsylvania had no powers other than advisory powers. With reference to the Lunacy Act passed by the late Legislature, it is true only in a qualified sense that they have been given powers of administration. The Howe Commission which drew the Lunacy Act, provided for a lunacy commission entirely distinct and separate from the Board of State Charities. That was so modified in the Legislature

as to make it a sub-committee of the State Board of Charities. This committee is separate and acts separately from the State Board, and it cannot be said that the State Board has administrative or executive powers.

Dr. HOYT: The New York Board was established in 1867 with advisory powers only. It exercised these powers from 1867 to 1871, when it had conferred upon it what might be called judicial powers. In the course of its early investigations it brought out the fearful condition of the chronic insane in the poor houses of the state, and the question arose how to compel their removal. The machinery of the Courts could probably have accomplished this, but the Legislature, from the fact that the Board in its investigation had become thoroughly acquainted with this subject, conferred upon the Commissioners of Charities this power to make an order like a court. This power has never been exercised.

REPORT FOR THE STATE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

BY DILLER LUTHER, GENERAL AGENT.

I have no special changes to report in the general condition of the public institutions in the state of Pennsylvania. The statistics of crime and pauperism differ very little from those of the preceding year. Marked improvement is noticed in some, whilst in others not even the beginning of a change towards better methods has yet been made. In the latter class I have reference more particularly to many of our county jails. Of these I have little of a favorable character to mention, but much to condemn. The moral improvement of that portion of the criminals who are detained in them is entirely neglected. In some counties the buildings have been improved, whilst in others they remain without amendment in any particular. It may truly be stated of the latter that if one of the ends of justice is the prevention of crime, by deterring men from committing it through fear of the law consequences, they almost wholly fail to accomplish the desired result.

In many of the old jails of the state a proper system of discipline we know to be impossible because of their im-

perfect structural arrangement. That suitable buildings are not provided for the purpose is a reflection upon the county authorities. The first step towards the reform of our present prison system cannot be taken until such accommodations are afforded, and so long as this duty is neglected, so long will the responsibility of the failure to improve the manner of conducting them rest upon their shoulders.

Vagrants appear in greatly diminished numbers in alms-houses, but have greatly increased in jails — the effect doubtless of an act to suppress vagrancy, passed at the session of the legislature of 1879 — which authorizes more summary arrests and longer terms of imprisonment. Men and women of this class with their children, are largely committed by justices of the peace to the county prisons, where they are frequently detained for weeks and months.

That a greater decrease in the Alms House population should not have occurred in a period of such widely extended prosperity may seem surprising, but is to be explained by the unusual extent to which recent immigrants have become inmates, and partly to the narrow limits within which out-door relief has been granted. A strict observance of a cast iron rule upon the latter subject under the influence of mistaken notions of economy invariably compels many worthy poor suddenly bereft of husband or father to seek relief in the poor house of which they so frequently become permanent residents, and where the injury caused by immoral associations cannot well be avoided.

Whether aid should be rendered by alms houses to the unfortunate in their homes, must be considered from the humane as well as the economic standpoints. To insist upon the removal of a bereaved mother with all her children may be both costly and cruel. Any relief of destitution caused by sudden misfortune when thus dispensed is always temporary and avoids the necessity of breaking home influences for helpless and dependent children. Too often the transfer of entire families into alms houses ends in permanently pauperizing them.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, and with the exceptions named, methods of care and treatment of all classes of dependents have been improved and are advancing to still higher standards.

That long continued errors in systems of management are not readily surrendered, but are apt to be adhered to long after the superiority of later and better methods

have been demonstrated by actual experience is well known to all.

In no department of human effort is this truth more painfully verified than in that which is now under consideration. No time or labor have been spared to impress the public mind with the extent to which successful administration was hindered by it, nor have any efforts to obtain such legislative action as was required to correct existing evils, been neglected. Long continued prejudices which have so seriously retarded the progress of improvement, have, however, at length given way before the light of experience. This is a memorable year in the history of the Legislature of the State, not only for the provisions which it has made for greatly increased wants and changed conditions, but also for the aid it has given to correct defects in existing systems of management.

A law has been passed to prevent the admission and detention of children in alms houses and to provide for their care and education.

This law provides for the care of such children between the ages of two and sixteen years, by placing them out in families, or in homes provided for the purpose.

The act for the removal of the insane from almshouses confers little power for such removal which did not exist before, and is coupled with provisions which render the law inoperative for two years at least. These provisions were inserted in favor of the counties, to reconcile the overseers of the poor to the proposed removal, and consist in conditions reducing the cost of maintenance to $4 per capita, per week, including clothing and breakage, and the charge to the counties to $2 per week, from $3. This involves an increase of cost to the state, by deficit, to be made good by state appropriations, of $52 per annum for every inmate. As the legislature neglected to make this additional appropriation, it is impossible for the present to enforce this provision.

An act has also been passed, placing under supervision or control of the Board of Public Charities, through a committee on lunacy, provided for in the statute, all houses or places where insane persons are detained for treatment. This act is probably as far in the advance of reform as any in this country, and if well administered, may be expected to produce the best results. The committee on lunacy is given by this law the power to make, under certain conditions, and enforce regulations for the treatment of the insane; they are empowered to release any patient wrongfully detained. Patients may

at any time correspond with them. Periodical reports of all cases must be sent to them. As the law contains thirty-nine sections, it cannot, however, be repeated here.

With the aid afforded by these laws, much improvement in the condition of the different classes of inmates may be expected.

Additional buildings have been erected for their care in different sections of the state. Ample accommodations have been provided for the convict class by large extensions to our state prisons. The Reformatory at Huntington when completed, will supply all that are needed for juvenile delinquents and male criminals between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five years, not known to have been previously sentenced to a penitentiary or state prison in this or any other state.

For the cure and treatment of the indigent insane, the policy of the state has been eminently liberal. Upwards of five millions of dollars have been expended in providing the necessary buildings, which it is believed afford sufficient accommodations for all who require institutional care. And now that the necessary power has been granted to remove insane inmates from County Alms Houses to State Hospitals, we may ere long be permitted to see the day, when the alms house system of care for that severely smitten class, with all its hardships, cruelties and horrors, shall be discontinued and fall into that oblivion to which it ought long since to have been consigned.

Under the operation of the law relating to the removal of the indigent insane, and that which forbids the admission and detention of children over two years of age in alms houses, constituting jointly fully one-third of their entire population, a very considerable decrease in the number of inmates cannot fail to take place.

But this review of recent legislation would not be complete without including a notice of the Act of Congress of August 3, 1882, which directs that there shall be levied, collected and paid a duty of fifty cents for each and every passenger not a citizen of the United States who shall come by steam or sail vessel from any foreign port to any port within the United States. The act directs that the state commissions designated to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports of the different states, shall provide for the support and relief of such immigrants as may fall into distress or need public aid; and if on examination there should be found among passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a pub-

lic charge, they shall report the same to the Collector of the port, and such person shall not be permitted to land; and all foreign convicts, except those convicted of political offenses, upon arrival, shall be sent back to the nations to which they belong and from whence they came. The expense of such return of the aforesaid persons not permitted to land, shall be borne by the owners of the vessels in which they came.

Under the provisions of the act, many cases of destitution have already been relieved, and employment obtained for a large number of persons. The strict examinations and inspections to which the numerous emigrants are subjected immediately upon their arrival, have already effected a material reduction in shipments of these dependent classes to this country. When it is remembered how very largely the convict and dependent classes who occupy our penitentiaries and alms houses are made up of foreigners, it is rendered difficult to estimate the relief which will be afforded by these sanitary laws. The institutions for the support and care of the defective and delinquent classes are established and owned by incorporated associations, with aid from the state for the indigent classes.

The system commands universal favor and approval and is eminently successful. The institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, feeble minded children, and the houses of refuge are included in this classification.

A glance at some remaining errors and abuses which demand attention from this Conference must close this report.

That a want of confidence in the efficacy of reformatory agencies and influence for the criminal classes under care in our correctional institutions is manifested to more than the usual extent, must be apparent to all. Frequent expressions to that effect from judges of court and from officers connected with the institutions themselves.

The ground upon which these opinions are founded consists mainly upon the frequent recommittals of the same persons — a test that is by no means always correct, but is frequently deceptive. No matter what the merit of a reformatory may be, the success of its work will frequently be defeated by untoward circumstances which are beyond its control. The commitments may consist almost exclusively of a class who are so utterly deteriorated mentally and physically as to be beyond all hope of reformation or recovery.

I might refer for illustration of this point to the statis-

tics of the House of Correction in the city of Philadelphia. Out of 5,965 persons who were admitted in 1881, 3,031 were habitual drunkards, more than one-half of the entire number of inmates were recommittals of the same persons month after month and year after year. There can be little hope of success in any efforts to restore any considerable number of persons so fallen and depraved. This institution was intended to be reformatory, but from the force of circumstances it is made an asylum. And if the question is asked why it is permitted to become so, the true answer will probably be found in the manner in which the committals are made. Of the 5,965 inmates in 1881, five thousand seven hundred and sixty (5,760), were committed by magistrates, 771 were self-committed, only 19 by judges of courts, and 76 by the Board of Managers — all of the latter having sought admission.

The extent to which these correctional institutions of the State are occupied by a class of semi-criminals who are summarily convicted and sentenced, has become a burdensome grievance which calls for a remedy. Nor are these abuses confined to this class of institutions, but include jails and alms houses.

By the careless manner in which these committals are made, much wrong is often inflicted, not only on tax payers, but upon many who, upon insufficient grounds, become inmates of our own correctional and charitable institutions. The question may be asked whether these are proper subjects of the public bounty, and do they afford proper tests of what may be accomplished under other circumstances by the employment of reformatory agencies and influences. The evil is growing, and unless checked, will assume still greater magnitude.

The institutions for the care and training of juvenile delinquents, the causes which interfere with permanent employment, are of a special character and are also difficult of removal. But the greatest hindrance of all is the want of parental aid and co-operation. That a more rigid, personal responsibility has not been imposed upon the parents of children whom the State has to maintain, must be regarded as a most burdensome grievance. What degree of success in the moral training can be expected, so long as the children of the lazy, the vicious, the drunkard and the criminal may be recommitted again and again, and be cast in increasing numbers upon the shoulders of the honest tax payer. Little or no responsibility attaches to the parents of such children. So important is this held to be in Great Britain, that the

policy is urged upon the government that the responsibility should be rendered really a pecuniary one or one of imprisonment, and should be rigorously enforced upon all who neglect the first claims of nature. This rigor, it is contended, is necessary in justice to the honest and industrious portion of the commonwealth, and as a positive mercy to the poor children, and even to the wretched parents themselves.

And let me say in conclusion, that so long as this great wrong continues without a remedy, there can be little confidence in a permanent reformation of character or conduct, and no hope of relief from the burden caused by the frequent recommittals of the same persons to the discipline of our correctional institutions.

"There are few greater cruelties," says a distinguished philanthropist, "than any form of sentimental impunity to crime, to vagrancy, or to the neglect of natural duties."

REPORT FROM WISCONSIN.

BY H. H. GILES.

The most important legislation had in Wisconsin affecting the criminal class since the last meeting of the Conference is "An act to more effectually suppress vagabondage." This law was aimed at the tramp nuisance, and provides in cases of conviction under it, for imprisonment in the county jail, on bread and water diet. for not less than fifteen days, or imprisonment in the state prison for not exceeding one year, except in counties having work-houses, commitments may be made to such work-houses, in the discretion of the court. The act further provides that the county and municipal courts shall have concurrent jurisdiction with the circuit courts. Justices of the peace have no jurisdiction in tramp cases.

The law is summary in its provisions and severe in its penalties, and we believe that its enforcement will rid our state of the vagrant horde that has afforded a rich harvest for sheriffs, constables aud justices of the peace in several counties.

Much of the work of the State Board of Charities and Reform during the past year has been in the line of carrying out the provisions of the law in relation to the care of the chronic insane by counties.

The introduction of the subject in the Conference last year gave rise to an excited discussion, and the "Wis-

consin system," so called, was vigorously denounced by some, and as vigorously defended by others.

After another year of trial the Wisconsin Board has

REASON TO CONGRATULATE THE PEOPLE

of the state on the fact that for the first time in the state's history, provision has been made for the humane care of every insane person, and at reasonable cost to the taxpayers.

Twelve counties have erected buildings on the county farms. The buildings are not (with two exceptions) connected with poor-houses, but separate from, and are independent of them. They have an aggregate capacity for 750. They contained August 3d, 474 patients. Most of them have been built with a capacity in excess of the immediate wants of the several counties, in order to meet the growing increase or accumulation of the insane. To these county institutions the insane from the poor-houses in such counties as had not suitable accommodations for their care, have been, and are being, transferred.

The cost of the new buildings has varied from $130 per capita per patient to $300; while the cost of our state hospitals has been over $1,000 per patient.

Our report last year shows that where the system was adopted in connection with the county farm, the expense was not materially increased over the cost per capita of maintaining the paupers the year previous.

In one county where the institution was separate and only the insane provided for, the cost was $2.20 per week. The institution had but nineteen acres of land, and none of it was improved, and everything used was purchased. With regard to the food furnished and general health of the patients, Dr. Clark, the medical attendant of the institution, in his report to the board of supervisors, said: "All the inmates are at present in good physical health. They eat heartily, enjoy a good digestion, and most of them sleep well. * * The meals served were appetizing and abundant; indeed, the latter quality was necessary, as I never saw laboring men or soldiers in camp fall to with greater zest than was shown by these patients. Almost without exception the patients have improved in physical condition. This has not failed in a majority of cases of a favorable effect upon their mental condition."

After reciting the general and special management, the doctor proceeds:

"Thus far this plan has worked well. Good food, cleanliness, good beds, pure air, sufficient exercise, warm rooms and clothing, and regular habits, have constituted

the general plan of treatment, very little medicine having been administered. In my judgment a better plan could not have been adopted. The favorable results impress themselves on all visitors, in the general atmosphere of good comfort, quiet and good cheer which they not unfrequently remark with some surprise as something they did not expect to see in such a place. I think I but voice the sentiment of every citizen who has visited the asylum, that this noble charity in its conception and management is an institution of which every inhabitant of this highly-progressive country has great reason to be proud of."

We have quoted at some length from the report of Dr. Clark, for the reason that what he says of his county will apply to each of the twelve counties that have undertaken the same philanthropic and humane work.

In connection with county farms, the expense as near as could be estimated was from $1.02 to $1.15 per capita per week. A prominent factor in keeping expenses low is the amount of subsistence raised by the labor of the patients and attendants. And this is the kind of economy that best pays, since it not only reduces the expenses but benefits the patients.

The disbelievers in the system lay great stress upon the idea that no skilled medical attendance is provided for county institutions. We have come to regard this objection as the veriest nonsense. Experts admit the general incurability of insanity.

As a rule, the class cared for in the counties require less medical treatment than an equal number of sane persons outside institutions. The ordinary physician is as well prepared to treat the bodily ailments of the chronic insane as the most scientific expert. What are called mental diseases, we have come to regard as manifestations or results of bodily disease. There can be no such thing as insanity in a sound body. Every departure from this simple proposition leads into the region of mystery.

To observe the laws of hygiene is not empiricism. Granted, that chronic insanity is but the result of a chronic derangment of some bodily organ, and the treatment common sense calls for is found only in smaller communities, with good food, occupation and non-restraint.

The improved condition of the chronic insane in our county institutions is most marked. The improvement begins usually from the date of their entrance. Non-restraint and occupation work wonders with most of

them. Filthy cases removed from home become cleanly and care for themselves—violent and excited ones become mild and tractable, and demented ones are frequently awakened to new mental life. It is demonstrated that the chronic insane can be educated to an uncertain standard of self-control at least, and become useful in some of the various occupations pursued on the farm and in the households. The percentage of patients that are

MORE OR LESS OCCUPIED

is over ninety, while over twenty-six per cent are occupied over one-half the time. Less than one per cent. are in continued restraint, and less than two per cent. are in occasional restraint.

The system of county care in our state is conquering the prejudices of our citizens, who were strongly opposed to it three years ago. To become acquainted with and understand its workings, is sufficient. Said a prominent physician, who had for many years been a "visitor" at one of our State Hospitals, to a member of our State Board: "I was stubbornly opposed to your system and predicted dire disaster to result, but after two or three visits to our County Asylum and investigating its workings, I am fully converted and firmly believe that your Board has conferred a vast benefit on the state in the saving of money, as well as mitigated and improved the condition of the unfortunate class under your care. You have made a grand advance in the interest of economy as well as humanity."

The want of faith in county care for the chronic insane arises from ignorance of how that care is exercised. At our last meeting one of the ablest members of this Conference doubted "if any state makes more liberal provisions or affords better care for the insane than the state of Ohio." Afterwards, in speaking of the county infirmaries, he pictured "the insane who may be refractory or filthy; these are strapped, or secured, or handcuffed, or hobbled, or locked in narrow, dark, filthy cells, or 'crazy house,' or jail, and left to live if they may, or die if they can, while the 'boss' is busy with the farm."

Said another: "The insane on our county farms are often put into the hands of ignorant, incompetent men, as alms-house keepers; men who are afraid of them, and they don't know what to do with them. What do they do? They control them by brutal force. They intimidate them. I could tell you of insane paupers chained to benches and to floors, penned in pens without any doors, only having holes in the walls through which to

pass food and water, kept locked up in solitary rooms for sixteen years without going out or setting foot on the ground." We have made these quotations for the purpose of introducing one from our own correspondence and applying it to the pictures presented of the condition of the pauper insane in Ohio and Illinois, for these pictures will likely continue to blacken their otherwise fair records "until the lunacy of state control in state buildings for all the insane" shall be cured in the brains of their earnest yet misguided philanthropists.

The county insane institutions are visited by a member of the board or the secretary at least once each quarter and at a time not expected. Some of them receive several visits.

The county authorities and state board are working in harmony to secure the best results, both among the insane and the paupers.

All the county poor houses and most of the jails have been visited the present year. Most of the poor houses are in first-class condition, being cleanly and well ordered. With three or four exceptions there is an entire absence of the "poor house smell," once so common; indeed, it is a common thing for the visitor to eat and sleep in the poor house whenever as convenient as to go to a hotel.

The improvement in our jails is not so marked. The constitutional provision against the re-election of a county sheriff stands as an obstacle to any great progress in the line of improvement. Our sheriffs are changed so that we have a new man to train each two years.

DR. WALK, of Pennsylvania: I would like to ask the gentleman what kind of an organization obtains in these county asylums—how complete it is?

MR. GILES: We have superintendent and attendants. The county asylums are organized under the rules of the Board of State Charities and unless these rules are complied with, the appropriation is withheld. The State passed a law by which a county desiring to take care of its own insane could erect an asylum and receive from the State $1.50 per week for each inmate. The cost of erection of the building is not given.

GOV. ANDERSON, of Kentucky: I would like to inquire if the State Board of Charities requires a resident medical officer?

MR. GILES: It does not.

GOV. CHAS. ANDERSON, of Kentucky, made a most eloquent speech, which we regret was not furnished us by the reporter. The editor makes the following imperfect report from memory:

GOV. ANDERSON said he was surprised and delighted at what he heard from Wisconsin in relation to the treatment of the chronic insane. He knew that Wisconsin had the best State Historical Society in the country, with a wonderful library; he knew that Wisconsin had the best system of Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes in this country, and now he was surprised and delighted to find that Wisconsin was taking the lead in a movement of so great importance as a reform in the treatment of the insane. He believed that this was a movement in a hopeful direction. Instead of housing the insane together, this was the beginning of a movement to scatter them in small communities, with more occupation and less restraint, and where abuses by attendants were more easily discovered and corrected than in large institutions.

He was sorry to say, as a native Kentuckian, that his own state and the entire south were behind the northern states in most of the matters which engage the attention of this Conference. The effects of slavery and the disasters of the civil war had thrown the south behind in many things. But now we were prepared to learn from the eminent philanthropists gathered from all parts of the Union, how to ameliorate our treatment of the insane, and how to reform our prison system, both of which were needed in Kentucky, if not in other states.

He thanked the philanthropists for coming here to Louisville, and he expected that he and others who attended this National Conference of Charities and Corrections for the first time would carry away much that would profit them and the states which they represented.

Mr. SMITH: I have no written report to give to this Conference, nor any suggestions to make which would be of benefit to you. I, for one, came here to learn. I attended one of these conferences two years ago, in Boston, and became very much interested in your work.

Rhode Island has been somewhat criticised because the State Board has administrative as well as advisory powers. I will merely say here that, so far as that is concerned, we have heard no complaints in our own state, but have been kindly met by the legislature in everything that we have asked for. We believe that our institutions were never, in their history, in such good condition, or so successful and prosperous, as at the present time. As to our Reform School, it was placed in charge of the State Board about three years ago. It now occupies new buildings upon a farm of five hundred acres, with the other state institutions. We feel that in managing this school upon the open system, we have taken a step in advance which will be of great benefit to the boys and girls under our care.

REPORT FROM RHODE ISLAND.

To the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, convened at Louisville, Ky., Sept. 24, 1883:

The undersigned, representing the Board of State Charities and Corrections of the State of Rhode Island, respectfully report that the Institutions under the care of the Board are six in number, varying in character, from purely charitable, to strictly penal.

Of the first class may be named the State Asylum for the Insane, and the State Almshouse. Of those which partake of the nature of reformatory, as well as penal institutions, are the Workhouse, or House of Correction, to which persons of adult age, of both sexes, are committed, usually on sentences of six months — mostly for drunkenness, and other sins against decency. The Sockanosset School for Boys, and the Woodlawn School for Girls, are intended to be wholly of a reformatory character, although the inmates have been committed,

generally by the Courts, for some offence — and not unfrequently by complaint of their parents, who find themselves unable to control their children, and take this method to get them out of harm's way.

The State Prison, and the Jail of the county of Providence, occupy opposite wings of the same building — are under the management of the same officers — the inmates of both work in the same shops together, eat at noon in the same room, partake of the same fare, and are governed by substantially the same regulations.

In this institution no systematic effort is made to exert a reformatory influence over the inmates, except to treat them humanely, insist upon their laboring diligently, obeying the rules of the prison carefully, and treating their officers and their fellow-convicts civilly; in addition to which, the Gospel is preached to them faithfully, every Sabbath, by a resident Chaplain, who holds a prayer-meeting weekly, with such as choose to attend it. On the first Sabbath of the month the prisoners who wish to express their sentiments and feelings, and exhort their fellows to seek the favor of the Lord, are permitted to do so, a service of this character taking the place of the ordinary preaching service. There is abundant evidence that these religious influences are productive of beneficial results, the character of some of the convicts, and the conduct of many more, being greatly modified thereby.

A religious service is also held at the House of Correction every Sabbath by the Chaplain, and at each of the schools by others.

The Catholic clergy are permitted to have free access to the inmates of all the institutions, but no public service is performed by them. No complaint is made by the inmates of a neglect of their spiritual wants or interests.

From the very brief description above given of the various institutions under the care of the Board of State Charities and Corrections, it may easily be understood that the labors of that body are multifarious and arduous. Thorough systemization, however, a careful division of the Board into standing committees, frequent meetings, and a lively interest in everything that pertains to the work, enables the management to keep the business well in hand, and all the demands of the various institutions are promptly met.

Six members of the Board constitute what in some states would be regarded as an Advisory Board, making, in turn, semi-monthly visits to all the institutions, and a

suitable record of their observations in a book kept for the purpose, which is always accessible to the proper officers, as well as to the members of the Board.

A "Women's Board," consisting of five ladies from different parts of the state, appointed by the Governor, exercise the functions of an Advisory Board. They have authority to visit every institution under the control of the state, where females are confined. They perform the duties imposed upon them by the statute with much zeal and intelligence, and their service is of great value.

Within the last three years the state has assumed the charge of the Reform School, which was established by the city of Providence some twenty-five years since.

The name of "Reform School" has been dropped,—the "Sockanosset School for Boys" has been removed to new buildings, erected expressly for its use, upon a part of the Farm entirely removed from all the other institutions, on elevated ground, and commanding an extensive view of a very pleasant country. The "Woodlawn School for Girls," also, has taken possession of a new building, a mile distant from those of the boys, situated on still higher ground, and in the midst of a fine grove of native growth.

These Schools are conducted by thoroughly competent officers, upon the "open system," and are producing most satisfactory results.

The same may be said, with equal truth, of all the institutions under the supervision and control of the Board of State Charities and Corrections of Rhode Island.

Respectfully submitted,

LEWIS B. SMITH,
STEPHEN R. WEEDEN.

REPORT FROM MASSACHUSETTS.

The delegates commissioned by his excellency to represent the Commonwealth of Massachusetts at this National Conference, submit the following report:

The State Prisons are two in number, viz.: the State Prison at Concord, and the Woman's Reformatory Prison at Sherburn. The management of each of these prisons has been changed during the past year. Gov. Butler, sustained by his Republican Council, dismissed for cause the warden at Concord, and his excellency appointed Col. Usher, whose firm, kind discipline, and *practical* as well as theoretical application of the common humanity of his convicts (which even crime cannot efface), has in-

spired hope and courage and industry into the hearts and lives of his prisoners. The resignation from ill health of the admirable Superintendent of the Reformtory Prison (Miss Mosher), led Gov. Butler to appoint that world-widely known and loved noble woman, Miss Clara Barton, as Superintendent.

The unexpected and late appointments by the Governor of the Massachusetts delegates, gave us neither time nor opportunity to confer or correspond with his excellency relative to any matters connected with our State Charities, likely to come up at this Conference, nor to obtain fullest statistics from those officially connected with the administration of our State Charities.

Massachusetts has five State Lunatic Hospitals, one of which is exclusively for the Chronic Insane, while about 300 State Chronic insane are cared for at the State Almshouse at Tewksbury.

Our last State Charity Report shows that there were 3,512 insane persons in Massachusetts January, 1883 — 3,056 of whom were in the public hospitals. Out of the whole number admitted to the five State Hospitals in 1882, there were 217 recoveries, or 5 1-5 per cent.

Whether this appallingly small percentage is because insanity is incurable to such an extent, or whether the young science Psychiatry, when developed, together with a more individual, scientific and humane care of the insane cannot produce better results, it remains for the future to prove.

The legislature last winter passed a resolve for another insane hospital, which is to be under the exclusive medical management of the Homeopathists. Some State institution already standing is to be utilized for this experiment, instead of the state erecting another palatial monument to state pride and folly — palaces which do not hold a single additional advantage for the cure and contentment of the patients.

The State Juvenile Reformatories are the Monson Primary School, having 320 inmates October, 1882; the Reform School for Boys, 142 inmates, and the Industrial School for Girls, 55 inmates. This small number of children is accounted for by our system of boarding out a large number (I believe 908 out '82) in private families, subject to visitation and supervision through a supplementary corps of State visitors.

We have over 21,000 paupers, who cost the state nearly $1,700,000 last year, some reimbursements leaving a net cost of a little less than $1,500,000. These figures give the expense and number of the poor in Massachusetts

cities and towns, the State institutions not being included.

MISS A. A. CHEVAILIER,
R. C. FLOWER,
Official State Delegates of Mass.

NOTE BY THE SECRETARY.— By a vote of the Conference a portion of the report was ordered not to be printed in the Proceedings.

REPORT FROM OHIO.

BY MR. NEFF.

The Board of State Charities of Ohio have the honor to report that the public institutions of the state of Ohio are in excellent condition, better, they believe, than at any former time. They are, without exception, efficiently and economically managed. The superintendents and officers are faithful and devoted to their work, vieing with each other in the introduction and use of the most approved methods. There is more concert of action than ever before, more friendliness and courtesy between the different institutions, more interchange of ideas and improvements, more devotion to the welfare of the unfortunate, more rigid supervision of attendants, and greater success in the management.

In the Insane Asylums, especially, great progress has been made in the voluntary employment of patients in landscape and kitchen gardening and in other suitable occupations, greatly to their comfort and happiness, and with good results as to improvement and recovery. The great diminution of mechanical and medicinal restraint, the increased number of open wards, whose occupants are free to go and come at pleasure; the great improvement in food, ventilation, arrangement and care of closets and drainage; the increased water supply, the improved heating of the different institutions, the comfortable and safe warming of the strong rooms (the invention of one of our superintendents), characterize especially the last year as one of great and decided progress.

These improvements are, to a great extent, the result of the devotion of the local Boards of Trustees to their work. Never before, in the history of Ohio, have the Boards been as efficient and useful. They are composed of men of high character and reputation, carefully selected by Governor Foster for their qualifications; politics have been ignored; local prejudices have been greatly restrained; and a free interchange of ideas, and

visits between the superintendents, stewards and trustees of the different institutions has resulted in mutual benefit and improvement.

The General Assembly of the state of Ohio has, in the most praiseworthy manner, undertaken heartily the work of reform. Several bills of great importance were passed last winter and are now in process of execution.

One directed the appointment by the Courts of Common Pleas of Boards of County Visitors in every county in the state, composed of three ladies and two men, who should serve gratuitously, visit all the institutions in each county, and report in writing each year to the court appointing them, and send a copy of their report to the Board of State Charities.

Another law provides for the children in the Children's Homes, making it the duty of the Trustees to endeavor to obtain suitable homes for them, keeping a register of the whole transaction, subject to inspection under suitable regulations.

Another law provides for the erection of District Children's Homes, when there is not a sufficient number in a county to justify the erection of a suitable building; and all the desired legislation has been provided to take all the children out of the Infirmaries and Poor Houses.

Another law provides for the employment of minor criminals throughout the state in the work houses of Cincinnati and Cleveland, and provides for the erection of another when needed in the central portion of the state.

Another provides for the separation of juvenile delinquents from adult prisoners.

But the most important law on these subjects passed by the last General Assembly, was one providing for the erection of a new Insane Asylum to accommodate one thousand patients at a cost of five hundred thousand dollars, and appointing a commission consisting of the Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor of State, Attorney General, and General Brinkerhoff of the Board of State Charities, to locate the institution and adopt the plans for its erection.

It is to be erected upon the plan suggested by the Board ofState Charities, on the detached building or cottage system, with every improvement which careful visitation of other asylums has suggested.

The penal institutions of the state of Ohio merit especial notice from the fact that the Ohio Penitentiary at Columbus, conducted upon the contract system, is not only self-supporting, but will this year bring in a revenue to the state of about fifty thousand dollars; and the

Work House at Cleveland, where the contract system has been discarded, is also self-supporting, and is a model of good management. The Cincinnati Work House has improved greatly, and is making good progress towards self-support.

The following summary, prepared by our Secretary, Rev. Dr. A. G. Byers, will exhibit at a glance the statistics, of the different institutions, with the per capita cost of maintenance. A system of book-keeping is now in general use which enables the officers of the various institutions to compare notes with each other, and has already proved of great benefit to the state.

State Benevolent Institutions.	Locations.	Total number for the year.	Daily Average.	Total Current Expenses for the year.	Cost per capita.
Asylum for Insane.....	Athens.....	832	611	$108,576	$177 70
Asylum for Insane.....	Cleveland ...	848	631	115,600	183 17
Asylum for Insane.....	Columbus ...	1,221	907	175,223	193 22
Asylum for Insane.....	Dayton	770	582	110,304	189 54
Asylum for Insane.....	Cincinnati...	842	644	108,572	155 19
Asylum for Insane.....	Toledo	165	114	20,927	174 39
Institution for Deaf and Dumb.....	Columbus ...	514	431	88,255	204 79
Institution for Blind...	Columbus ...	224	176	38,581	219 21
Institution for Feeble-Minded Youth.....	Columbus ...	617	532	122,364	166 29
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home.....	Xenia.....	798	609	102,327	168 02
PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.					
Ohio Penitentiary.....	Columbus ...	1,851	1,306	201,687	154 48
Reform School for Boys	Lancaster ...	678	499	64,064	128 36
Girls' Industrial Home .	Delaware....	324	256	38,917	151 97
Work House.....	Cleveland ...	1,814	264	34,289	129 88
Work House.....	Cincinnati...	3,301	457	66,116	130 18
House of Refuge.....	Cleveland ...	163	92	8,563	94 14
House of Correction...	Toledo	.....	.....	19,548	.....
House of Refuge.....	Cincinnati...	592	285	43,218	151 64
COUNTY INSTITUTIONS.					
Children's Homes.....	.....	1,579	819	98,653	117 33
Infirmaries	.....	13,684	5,171	564,647	109 21
Jails.....	.....	8,573	.....	96,965	.....
		39,390	14,386	2,227,197	.....
Out door relief by Infirmaries reported by 84 counties				244,549	
Grand Total expended by Ohio.....				$2,471,745	

Dr. LUTHER, of Pennsylvania: In this report giving the per capita cost of the different classes of institutions, I would like to know whether in the per capita cost of inmates of Alms Houses the two items of outdoor relief and the cost of maintenance inside of the institution is included?

Mr. NEFF: The outdoor relief is a separate matter from the other and is given in a separate item.

Mr. VAUX, of Pennsylvania: I would like to hear to what extent politics governs the appointment of a Warden—whether the party in power makes it a requisite that the person should be of the same party?

Dr. WALK: This does not enter into the question.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

THIRD SESSION.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, Sept. 25.

DR. HOYT: There has been no material change in the number of trustees or managers of the charitable institutions of New York since the formation of the State Board. Our State charitable institutions are generally controlled by boards of five, seven or nine managers, appointed by the Governor and Senate, and classified as to their terms of office. There is no instance on record where any member of these Boards, or the superintendent of any of our State charitable institutions, has been removed on account of politics. In this way we retain the services of officers of ripe experience in their various departments, and the state receives the benefit of their experience.

MR. COOLEY: I would like to inquire of the gentleman who has just spoken in regard to a few features of the work. I understand you had three forms of supporting your charitable institutions. One is entirely by the state; one entirely by societies, churches, etc., and one is mixed, partly by the state and partly by churches.

DR. HOYT: Prior to the last amendment of the constitution, the Legislature had authority to aid charitable institutions under benevolent organizations, and it did make annual pro rata appropriations to these institutions. This is prohibited under the present constitution, but the counties and cities have authority to appropriate to orphan asylums, hospitals and like institutions. The expenses of the Houses of Refuge, the Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb, the Blind or the Feeble-Minded are met entirely by the state. For the insane the state provides the buildings and the medical

supervision, while the expense of their maintenance and care falls upon their counties.

CHAIRMAN: I would like to ask if there is any aid granted by the State of New York to private corporations.

DR. HOYT: No, sir; the constitution, as before stated, prohibits it.

REPORT FOR MICHIGAN.

In making a report of the Penal, Charitable and Reformatory Institutions of Michigan, and of recent legislation on matters of special interest to this Conference, many things will doubtless be omitted about which the Conference would be glad to hear, and some matters, already reported at your previous sessions, may be repeated. If important matters are omitted, we trust you will secure the desired information by questions, and for any unnecessary repetition, we crave your indulgence.

The general condition of the State Institutions subject to the inspection of our Board, is about the same as last year, and as a rule, no action has been taken by the Legislature, or by the several Boards of Control, open to adverse criticism. A single exception will be noted in its proper connection.

The new duties imposed on the Board of Corrections and Charities, by the legislation of 1881, have been somewhat onerous, requiring much time and great prudence and discretion on the part of the Board, that the pleasant relations existing between the Boards of Control of the several Institutions, and the Board of Corrections and Charities, might not be disturbed.

Each Board, having but a single Institution in charge, would naturally magnify the importance of such Institution, and would prepare estimates, and seek legislation and appropriations commensurate with their idea of such importance.

The Board of Corrections and Charities are required to look over the whole field, consider the needs of all the State Institutions already in operation, as well as the pressing calls for suitable provision for classes of unfortunates, hitherto neglected, ascertain the aggregate of appropriations required for all these purposes, and in the light of experience, weigh the chances of securing favorable legislation, and from all these considerations report to the several Boards their opinion as to the propriety

and necessity of the estimates submitted, and of the appropriations asked. In cases where the Board has differed with the local Board, as to the estimates made, the amounts asked, or the plans submitted, they have generally been able to make such explanations and to give such reasons for opinions expressed, as have been entirely satistactory.

The work of the Board in examination of Jails and Poor-houses, will be spoken of later.

The Institutions subject to the inspection of the Board, may be divided into three classes, viz., the Penal, the Penal and Reformatory, and the Charitable.

The first should, and we trust soon will, under the operation of wise and humane laws, be merged into the second class, so that in the execution of all penal laws, the reformation of the criminal will be the leading thought. Under our present laws, however, while we have schools in all our prisons, and earnest chaplains and teachers, and some well directed efforts are made to fit the convicts, by education and character, for liberty and a better life, the leading idea, and hence the practical result, is simple punishment.

PENAL.

The *State Prison*, at Jackson, the *State House of Correction and Reformatory*, at Ionia, the *Detroit House of Correction*, at Detroit, used for female convicts, in the absence of state provision, and for some short time convicts from counties not provided with facilities for giving employment.

The number of convicts in confinement at Jackson is 580. Of these 54 are life convicts and 27 are insane. The number properly regarded as state convicts in the Detroit House of Correction is 237, of whom 61 are females. The number of convicts in confinement in the State House of Correction and Reformatory at Ionia is 444, of whom 3 are insane.

In all our prisons schools are maintained, and encouragement is held out for good conduct by large allowances of good time, according to a system of marking, the time that may be earned increasing yearly, according to length of sentence.

In our state prisons all convicts are employed under the contract system, for twelve hours per day, on the average during the entire year. At the State Prison at Jackson, where all life convicts, and a majority of those sentenced for long terms, are sent, the prison is self-supporting, and (aside from appropriations for buildings

and permanent improvements) brings a small revenue to the state.

The State House of Correction at Ionia, where many are sentenced for less than a year, has not hitherto paid expenses.

Owing to a failure to secure employment under contract for all prisoners, at what was considered suitable compensation, the experiment will be tried of employing those not hired by the contractors, on work for the state, under the supervision of the superintendent. The Detroit House of Correction, as run by the superintendent for the city, is a source of considerable revenue.

All convicts, when released on expiration of sentence or otherwise, are furnished by the state with ten dollars in money and a suit of clothes of like value. As this money must under the law be given to the released convict, and the prison officers have no power to control or direct its use, it is too often spent for intoxicants, before leaving the vicinage, and thus leads to new crimes, new convictions and new sentences.

The Board of Corrections and Charities made earnest efforts to secure the appointment of a state agent to look after and care for discharged convicts, who might take charge of the money thus paid by the state, furnish transportation to their homes, secure employment, and acting through, and in unison with, the agents of the Board of Charities, aid them in their efforts to regain self-respect, the confidence of community, and to become useful citizens.

Under the present system of prison labor, while the convicts are steadily employed at work, which for the contractors and for the state, is remunerative, they gain but little knowledge that will be of service when released, in securing employment, and earning living wages.

PENAL AND REFORMATORY.

The Reform School at Lansing. To this institution, boys over ten and under sixteen years of age, are committed for offenses punishable by fine or imprisonment, until eighteen years of age, unless sooner discharged according to law. As soon as complaint is made, and before arrest, the agent of the Board of Charities of the proper county is notified. After making a careful examination into the facts and circumstances attending the commission of the alleged offense, and into the surroundings, home life, and parentage of the offender, he reports to the court or magistrate the facts in the case. If he is satisfied of the child's guilt, and that he is willful and unmanageable, or that his home life is such as to

give little hope of reformation, if released on suspended sentence, the case is allowed to proceed to trial, and if convicted he is sentenced to the Reform School. Before the child is committed, however, the evidence and proceedings must be examined, and the sentence approved by the Judge of Probate, and his approval indorsed on the commitment.

The Board of Control, on the report and advice of the superintendent, have power to release, at any time, either absolutely or on ticket-of-leave, when in their opinion the boy gives evidence of reformation. He is then returned to his relatives or friends, but only after notice to the agent of the Board of Charities of the proper county, who exercises a supervisory care, and reports from time to time to the Superintendent of the Reform School.

The entire absence of prison restraint and the benign influence resulting, were sufficiently explained at your last session, and it needs only to be said that there has been no change in management, and no lowering in the standard of excellence.

Several new buildings have been erected, on improved plans, furnishing greater facilities for classification into families of not to exceed fifty in each (with a common dining-room, workshops, play grounds, etc.), combining in the most economical way the family and the congregate systems. An opportunity is thus furnished for grading the boys according to character, disposition and attainments, and strong inducements are held out to encourage industry, study, good conduct and reform.

To still further carry out this system, an appropriation was recommended last winter to enable the Board of Control to replace a wing of the present building, regarded as unsafe, with a double cottage of sufficient size to accommodate two families of fifty each, and to complete the administration building containing dining rooms, etc., but late in the session, one branch of the legislature, through some misapprehension it is believed, inserted in the bill which had passed the other branch of the legislature, a clause, requiring provision to be made for about 110 boys in the administration building, and struck out the appropriation for the cottage. This would, to that extent, have interfered with the extension of the cottage system, and was regarded by the Board of Control and by the friends of the Institution, as a very unfortunate provision, and as it was too late in the session to remedy the evil, the bill was defeated, and the whole matter will be referred to the next legislature.

The number of boys at the Institution is 345. The daily average for 1883 has been 384 3-7.

They still enjoy the largest liberty, compatible with good discipline, and in the school-room, the work-shops, at play, at military drill, and at the churches of the city, unattended, they will compare favorably with the same number of boys, of like age in our public schools, and fully justify the confidence reposed in them by the Superintendent.

Industrial Home for Girls, at Adrian.— This is the name given by the Legislature, at the request of the Board of Control, to the Institution formerly called the Reform School for Girls. Under present management it fully justifies its new name. It will be remembered that this is the only State Institution in Michigan, managed by a Board of Control, composed principally of ladies, and for this reason as well as for its special purpose, the reclamation and education of wayward and unfortunate girls, placing them in homes and fitting them for honorable and useful lives, it has elicited much public interest and attention.

In the preparation and adoption of plans for the buildings, and in the management and policy of the Institution, the selection of superintendent, cottage managers, matrons and teachers, the object to be accomplished has been kept steadily in view.

Though necessarily more expensive, the purely cottage plan, has been adopted and steadily adhered to throughout, as affording the best promise of permanent reformation.

This gives opportunity for careful classification and grading, furnishes employment to all, with such instruction and education as will fit them to secure situations and support, when released.

Inducements are held out, and encouragement given, for good conduct and improvement, by promotion or degradation, to higher or lower cottages in grade, according to a system of markings adopted.

The institution is in its infancy, but so much has already been accomplished that the Board of Control are encouraged to believe that their most sanguine expectations will be more than realized. The number sent to the Institution has increased so rapidly, while as yet the training and education received, has been too brief to warrant the placing of many in homes, that appropriations were made for an additional double cottage, with accommodations for sixty inmates, hospital rooms, etc.,

and for the purchase of additional land, to secure more perfect isolation.

It is hoped when the new cottage is completed, that homes will be found for those fitted to enter them, as fast as new commitments are made, and that additional cottages will not be required. Girls of from 7 to 16 years of age are sent to this Institution until 21 years of age, unless sooner released according to law, on conviction for some offense punishable by fine or imprisonment, after the same investigation and report by the Agent of the Board of Charities for the proper county, and on like approval of the sentence by the Agent and Judge, as in the case of boys committed to the Reform School.

The Board of Control have like authority as in the case of the Reform School, to release on-ticket-of leave or absolutely, in their discretion, and girls so released, whether placed in homes or returned to friends or whatever disposition is made of them, are looked after, cared for and visited by the Agent of the Board of Charities for the proper county, who reports at stated times to the Superintendent of the Home.

The number of girls now at the Institution is 136. The daily average for 1883 has been 133. Ten girls have already been placed in homes, from all of whom very favorable reports have been received.

CHARITABLE.

The *State Public School*, at Coldwater: We need not repeat what was said at the last Conference, with regard to this school, the scope and purpose of which were then fully explained. It is a charity of which Michigan has some reason to be proud, as it is, we believe, the first of the kind established by state authority.

It is a recognition on the part of the state, of its duty to care for its young, houseless and homeless wanderers, to take them from the streets and from even more demoralizing surroundings, give them maintenance, education and instruction in useful labor, until they can be placed in families and homes.

It is a public recognition and practical application of the truth that it is more *economical* as well as more humane, to endeavor to prevent crime and pauperism, by caring for and educating waifs and outcasts, than to provide for them in poor houses and prisons in after years.

Every effort is made to place the children from this school in good homes as soon after admission as practicable, not only for the purpose of making room for

others still in the streets and poor-houses, but also, before they shall become so accustomed to institutional life, as to make plain, though comfortable homes distasteful.

Some effort has been made to secure the appointment of a special State Agent, to procure homes for these children, who might act in conjunction with the County Agents of this Board.

The work, however, is now very efficiently done by the Agents of the Board of Charities, who make careful inquiry into the character of the proposed guardian and home, before any child is placed, and by frequent visits, counsel and advice, to both guardian and child, keep up a good understanding, and secure proper treatment, education, etc., and in case of irreconcilable differences between guardian and child, or where from any cause, a change of home is important for the child's good, they can readily make such change.

In very few instances are children returned to the school.

A small number have proved to be incorrigible, and have been returned to the counties from which received, and thence have found their way to the Reform School, and some to a prison. Such cases, however, are rare. A large number inherit physical disease, and all such who, in the opinion of a reputable physician, can be cured or materially benefited thereby, are sent to the Hospitals of the State University, and treated at State expense.

We have already spoken of the County Agents of the Board of Charities in former reports. In view of the important and often very delicate duties they have to perform, as well in all cases of children arrested for crime, where their advice is generally followed by the court or magistrate, as in the placing of children in homes from the State Public School, the Reform School, and the Industrial Home, supervising and reporting upon those released on ticket-of-leave or otherwise, visiting the children placed in the County from any State Institution, and changing the homes of such when deemed advisable, in view of all these duties, all requiring the exercise of great discretion, hearty sympathy, and mature judgment, great care is exercised in the selection and appointment of these Agents. The work is, and must necessarily be, largely a labor of love, the reward of which will only be received when it shall be said to them, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these. * * * Ye have done it unto me."

Considerable improvements have been made at the

State Public School during the year. A new hospital has been built, and the building heretofore used for that purpose has been converted into a double cottage, and will accommodate two families of children of thirty each.

The number of children now at School is 279; the daily average for 1883, has been 317 7-11; the number placed in homes during the year ending September 30th, 1882, was 111; the whole number placed in homes since the School was opened in 1874, has been 748 — of which number, not to exceed ten per cent., have from any cause left the homes in which they were placed before arriving at majority.

School for the Blind at Lansing — Much needed improvements are in progress at this institution, which, when completed, will probably afford room for all of this class who will apply for some time to come.

The present number of pupils is 68, which has been the average for 1883.

The Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb at Flint — Quite extensive improvements and additions are in progress at this institution, and when completed, much better sanitary conditions will exist than heretofore, and there will be room for all who will be likely to seek admission for some years to come.

The present number of pupils is 233, which has been the average daily attendance for 1883.

THE INSANE.

While large provision has been made for this class by the state and two new asylums are in course of erection, the provision made does not keep pace with the increase in the number requiring treatment. How best to meet this demand at the minimum of cost and at the same time secure the best results, is a question much discussed not only in our own State, but in most of the States of the Union.

At present, in addition to the insane in our two Asylums, which are much overcrowded, and those in our two Prisons, there are at least 450 more in County Poor Houses and in Hospitals connected with the same, of whom, about 200 are in Wayne County.

In addition to these there are about 100 more in a private asylum in the city of Detroit.

Whatever may be the case in other States, in Michigan, very few if any of the Poor Houses, either in construction or management, are fit places for the insane.

The number at the Michigan Asylum, at Kalamazoo, is 764. The daily average for 1883 has been 757.60. The number at the Eastern Asylum, at Pontiac, is 618. The daily average for 1883, has been 614.28. Each of these Institutions is designed to accommodate not to exceed 600 patients. An Asylum of about the same capacity is being built at Traverse City, but it will not be ready for patients under about two years. It will be seen that there are already in the state, more than enough insane to fill this Asylum when completed.

In view of the overcrowded condition of the Asylums and the frequent applications for the reception of patients suffering from recent attacks, where prompt treatment would afford reasonable hopes of recovery, an effort was made last winter to secure legislation authorizing the Medical Superintendents of Asylums, to provide for the reception of such patients, by returning to the counties under proper restrictions and safeguards, chronic insane, believed to be harmless, and affording little hopes of recovery, but the effort failed, and many such insane are now found shut up in cells, or otherwise restrained, in poor houses, where the facilities for care and treatment give little hopes of favorable results, and it is to be feared that many such will be added to the list of "permanently and hopelessly insane."

By an act of the legislature of 1883, the Board of Charities was charged with the duty of selecting grounds, at or near the State House of Correction, and preparing plans for an Asylum for the Criminal Insane, of whom there are about 30, in the two Asylums and as many more in the two Prisons.

The sum of $60,000, was appropriated to secure the grounds, erect and furnish the buildings, and prepare them for the reception of patients. This was $20,000, less than was asked for the purpose, and while grounds have been selected and plans prepared, with special reference to the amount appropriated, the Board may be compelled to revise the plans so as to bring their construction and equipment within the appropriation.

In addition to the State Charitable Institutions, there are many private associations and corporations, doing valuable and efficient service in the various fields of charitable work.

From all such associations, the Board of Charities invites annual reports. Such reports were received from twenty-five, of them last year. Some which reported, are merely aid societies, furnishing assistance in money, clothing, food, etc., to dependents and unfortunates, at

their homes, and of the number thus assisted, the amount disbursed, etc., we can give no accurate estimate.

Some maintain at private expense, Institutions where particular classes of objects of charity are supported, cared for and treated, temporarily or permanently, as the case may require.

Reports received from such, show that during the year, 3473 were thus cared for, and there were remaining in such Institutions Sept. 30, 1882, 1241.

Reports received, cover of course but a small part of the charitable work done by such associations in the State.

Earnest, though ineffectual efforts were made by the Board of Charities to secure legislation authorizing the establishment of a trial asylum for the care and education of the idiotic and feeble minded, especially for the women and children.

At present idiots of the pauper class are kept at the county poor houses, and those belonging to families of sufficient means are cared for at private expense.

The condition in which some of these unfortunates as well as some of the insane are found in the county poor houses, is such as for the good name of our state, I should be very unwilling to describe in this presence. Suffice it to say that while it appeared shameful and cruel, it arose no doubt more from ignorance and inexperience, than from any want of kindness and humanity.

We trust some progress has been made in arousing public attention to the importance of making separate provision for all in this most pitiable condition.

The number of idiots in our county poor houses is not less than 350, and may reach 400.

An effort was also made to secure such amendments to our penal statutes as would authorize indeterminate sentences, especially for that class of offenses now punishable by fine or imprisonment for short terms.

A large number of copies of the admirable paper read by Col. Burchard, at your last Conference, entitled "Indeterminate Sentences a Necessity," were printed and circulated by the Board.

The entire failure of sentences as now imposed, to secure any favorable results, the growing conviction that protection, not punishment, justifies jails and prisons, and hence, only when there is reasonable evidence of reformation, should the prisoner be released — these considerations, so forcibly expressed in that paper, will, we believe, work a change in public opinion that will soon secure the desired result. God speed the day.

RECAPITULATION.

The number of inmates in our state charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions, August 1, 1883, as gathered from reports to that date, is as follows:

Prisoners at the State Prison, the State House of Correction and at the Detroit House of Correction, under state authority—	
Life convicts	54
Insane	30
Female prisoners	61
Other prisoners	1,170
Total number	1,315
Boys at the Reform School	345
Girls at the Industrial Home	130
Total number	475
Deaf and dumb in the institution at Flint	233
Blind at the school at Lansing	68
Children at the state public school at Coldwater	279
Total number	580
Patients at the Asylum for Insane at Kalamazoo	764
Patients at the Asylum for Insane at Pontiac	618
Total number	1,382
Whole number of dependents in state institutions	3,752
Whole number of dependents in state institutions, deducting prisoners	2,437

The Board has gathered statistics as to the number confined in county jails, the number of dependents in county poor houses, the number of insane in the state in poor houses and private asylums, the number of idiots and imbeciles in poor houses, etc., but it is not supposed that such statistics are desired in this report.

The duty imposed by law upon the Board of visitation and careful examination of all the county jails and poor houses of the state, is regarded as a very important part of their work, and has been very generally and faithfully performed, and great improvement is manifest from year to year, more especially in the treatment and care of the poor.

Of the great majority of our county jails but little can be said in commendation. Many of them are old, badly constructed, and with little attention to light, ventilation or sewerage, and seemingly with no thought as to comfort, health or personal cleanliness. Classifica-

tion and separation, except by locking prisoners in cells, is impossible, bathing and cleanliness of person unattainable, idleness a necessity, vulgarity and obscenity the prevailing atmosphere. Young and old, accused and convicted, persons charged with slight offenses, and those accused of heinous crimes, the comparatively pure and the diseased victims of vice, all these are placed together in one common room, eating together, conversing together, passing together many weary hours of idleness. What must be the inevitable result?

Those who enter comparatively innocent, unless possessed of a moral soundness of constitution, which their presence in such a place does not lead us to anticipate, come out with mind and heart loathsomely contaminated and diseased.

The jails of our state are probably no worse than the jails of other states, and in most of those recently built an effort has been made to secure good ventilation, separation of the different classes of the accused, both as to age and the character of the alleged offense, and the placing of those already convicted by themselves. In many of these jails there is also an abundunt supply of water, with conveniences for and rules requiring bathing at stated times. In most of the counties the officers in charge of the jails are disposed to accept readily and act promptly upon suggestions made by the Board as to improvements, and are doing the best they can with the facilities at their command.

Our penal code and county jail system are an inheritance from a ruder age, when punishment, "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth" was the leading idea, and protection to society by any effort to reform the criminal, had no thought or place.

We are aware how easy it is to find fault with things as we find them, how difficult to suggest practicable and effective remedies, how easy it is to pull down, how difficult to build up.

We believe, however, that the day is not distant when the county jails will be used merely as houses of detention for the accused, until tried, and conducted with regard to the legal maxim that "every man is considered innocent until proved guilty," and that our workhouses and prisons, will be so constructed and managed that convicts, under the operation of an improved penal code, will not come out, made by the State, viler, baser, more hardened criminals than when committed. Again we say, God speed the day.

Of our Poor Houses, we have already said enough.

They are generally so constructed, and our poor laws so administered, as to encourage industry, build up self respect and self reliance, make the condition of the aged, sick, and necessarily dependent, as free from discomfort and humiliation as may be, and the temporarily disabled, self supporting as soon as practicable.

Of the condition of the idiotic and insane in these Poor Houses, we will not trust ourselves to speak, further than to say, they are out of place, and should be provided for elsewhere.

In conclusion we may say, that notwithstanding the many defects, imperfections, and positive evils still existing both in construction and management, of the Charitable, Penal, and Reformatory Institutions of our State, there are from year to year marked evidences of improvement.

The seed sown by the Board of Charities has taken root and is bearing fruit. The laws and institutions relating to these matters are undergoing modification and improvement, and we may say in reference to all these questions, not only from speculative opinion, but from positive evidence, "The world does move."

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON THE ORGANIZATION OF CHARITIES IN CITIES.

There at present in this country the following societies for the organization of charity in cities, so far as the committee is informed:

BUFFALO Charity Organization Society, 10 Court Street; J. G. Munro, Secretary.

NEW HAVEN Board of Associated Charities, 23 Church Street; Rev. W. D. Mossman, Corresponding Secretary.

PHILADELPHIA Society for Organizing Charity, 1602 Chestnut Street; Jas. W. Walk, M. D., General Secretary.

BROOKLYN Bureau of Charities, 177 Montague Street; Alfred T. White, President.

SYRACUSE (N. Y.) Bureau of Labor and Charities, 24, Montgomery; Rev. Richmond Fisk, General Secretary.

NEWPORT (R. I.) Charity Organization Society, 3 Church Street; Edmund Tweedy, President.

BOSTON Associated Charities, Charity Building; Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Registrar.

POUGHKEEPSIE Charity Organization Society; M. E. Wing, Bureau Secretary.

CINCINNATI Associated Charities, Room 17 Hammond Building; Wm. J. Breed, Treasurer.

PORTLAND (Me.) Associated Charities, organized Nov. 19, 1879.

INDIANAPOLIS Charity Organization Society, Plymouth Church Building; Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, Secretary.
DETROIT Association of Charities, Room 10 Merrill Block; Richard R. Elliott, Secretary.
CLEVELAND Society for Organizing Charity, 345 Superior Street (Room 5); Dr. W. J. Scott, President.
TAUNTON (Mass.) Associated Charities, Cedar Street Chapel; Rev. S. H. Emery, Secretary.
LOWELL (Mass.) Associated Charities, 81 Appleton Street; W. P. Atwood, Secretary.
BALTIMORE Charity Organization Society, Room 12 Wilson Building; Miss Eliza T. Elliott, Registrar.
WASHINGTON (D. C.) Associated Charities, 1418 F Street; Rev. L. S. Emery, Secretary.
PRINCETON (N. J.) Society for Organizing Charity, organized November, 1881.
MILWAUKEE Associated Charities, organized Dec. 22, 1881.
KANSAS CITY (Mo.) Provident Association; F. M. Furguson, Superintendent.
NEWARK (N. J.) Bureau of Associated Charities, 756 Broad Street; Jas. Stewart Mackie, Secretary.
NEW YORK CITY Charity Organization Society, 79 Fourth Avenue: Chas. D. Kellogg, Organizing Secretary.
TERRE HAUTE Society for Organizing Charity, organized March 31, 1882.
CHICAGO Charity Organization Society, 9 Borden Block; Rev. S. H. Gurteen, Organizing Secretary.
NEW ORLEANS Conference of Charities, organized June 21, 1883; Rev. D. L. Mitchell, General Secretary.
YONKERS (N. Y.) Charity Organization Society, organized 1883; James S. Fitch, Secretary.
PORTSMOUTH (Ohio) The Associated Churches, organized 1883.
CHATTANOOGA (Tenn) Charity Organization Society.

The attempt to organize the charities in cities is of recent date. The oldest society in this country was organized in 1877. Since then twenty-seven cities have initiated such a movement. At present public attention is being more and more directed to it. In the year 1882, New York City started a society under the direction of Chas. D. Kellogg, so long Secretary of the Philadelphia Society. In Chicago, the Rev. S. H. Gurteen is engaged in the same work. In both these cities the newspapers have been quick to see the advantages offered by the new movement, and have presented many and carefully considered editorials upon it. So many papers explaining the objects and methods of these societies have been presented to the attention of the members of this Conference, that no detailed explanation need be given. The reports of the actual workings of some of the societies will throw the best light upon the question.

The various societies for organizing Charity in cities differ somewhat among themselves, emphasizing one or other of the various objects and developing methods ac-

cording to the special needs of the city. Two types may be distinguished — one giving itself chiefly to the care of the poor as individuals, securing for them appropriate relief, substituting work for alms, developing the personal interest of the community in its poorer members, suggesting provident schemes; the other emphasizes the public work, secures the passing of needed ordinances, or the enforcement of laws already existing, reforming abuses, studying the moral as well as the charitable questions which concern the poor, organizing public opinion.

The movement which bears this name has heretofore been introduced into the larger cities, where the evils of pauperism and the waste of money and of power are most evident. But it is evident that smaller cities can adopt these objects and methods. Indeed, if the intelligent men and women in smaller places would meet, asking the questions: How can we occupy this ground for order, peace, prosperity and happy city life? How can we avoid the mistakes made by other cities? such a body would find, in the principles and methods of the charity organization societies, that which would lay the foundations of a better social life. Connected with some of these societies are assemblies and conferences, which are miniature conferences of charity. These have been in the highest degree helpful, spreading among the people the best information, interesting the people in their local charities and in new lines of work. One society takes up a systematic visitation of the city and county institutions.

Noticeable is the amount of information collected as to dependent classes. The historical records are full of information as to character, condition and habits, and give data for studies as to heredity, intemperance and influence of surroundings. As these societies increase it would seem to be desirable that some means be taken to secure a unity of object and to effect exchanges of experience, and the suggestion has been made that a national organization of these societies be perfected.

It must be understood that the organization of charities in cities is something more than the relief of suffering. It seeks to effect for cities what state boards of charity do for public charities. It is the organization of the moral and charitable forces of society, so as to secure larger results than can be done by individual effort. It seeks to reform abuses, to prevent suffering, to care for children that are neglected and dependent. It brings all who are interested together for mutual acquaintance, for exchange of information, for co-operation, for divis-

ion of labor, for co-ordination of effort. It is the wise mind and tender heart of a community asking what it may do to cast out the stumbling blocks from the path, to protect the traveler along the Jericho road, to create a moral environment. For that is our problem. This must be now kept in mind — that it seeks to make better conditions of life. It does relieve poverty, but this is not the whole of its great work. Instances of what it has done in this direction are in its lessening the amount of public relief by coin in Buffalo; in its effecting a remedy for abuses in paying elevator men; in its abolishing poor relief in Philadelphia; in its temperance work in Boston; in its coffee houses in Boston; in its abolishing the Vincennes lottery and wine rooms in Indianapolis.

Its education work is of great value. Through the medium of the press it warns the public against imposters, it advances new ideas and urges better methods until the city is permeated by a new spirit.

Reports of Societies were presented by the Committee as follows:*

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF BUFFALO, NEW YORK.

The Charity Organization Society of this city was the first established in this country. Its success was due largely to the efforts of the Rev. S. Humphreys Gurteen and a few of its leading citizens. It has prospered continually from the beginning, and if it be remembered that each question arising had to be decided without reference to any precedent, at least in this country, perhaps remarkably.

During the five years of the Society's existence its progress has been marked by the steady growth of public opinion in favor of its principles of rational charity. The effect upon official relief was at once marked. Each year has shown a further decrease of expenditure in that branch of municipal government.

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*A portion of the reports consisting of lists of all the Charitable Institutions in the several cities represented, with information respecting each, is omitted for lack of space. The reports presented with this exception were as given. A few reports were presented, in person, by representatives of the Societies, and will be noted in the proper place.— EDITOR.

The following table shows the amount expended each year since the organization of the Society, showing expenditures of Overseer of Poor from 1877 to 1881 for temporary aid:

	Groceries.	Wood.	Coal.	Shoes.	Burials.
1877....	$68,808 60	$6,538 21	$15,618 25	$2,473 80	$5,590 00
1878....	42,171 50	2,870 14	8,046 97	3,064 44	5,510 00
1879....	30,685 00	1,985 75	5,093 07	951 50	3,090 00
1880....	28,319 00	1,157 85	4,158 94	1,086 90	3,130 00
1881....	22,959 00	744 66	5,150 20	453 30	4,270 00
	$192,943 10	$13,296 61	$38,067 43	$8,029 94	$21,590 00

	Sundries.	Total.	Hospitals.	Grand Total.
1877....	$166,79	$99,195 65	$24,126 91	$123,322 56
1878....	34 25	61,697 30	24,250 41	85,947 71
1879....	15 50	41,820 82	26,864 08	68,684 90
1880....	15 50	37,868 19	18,500 53	56,368 72
1881....	42 00	33,619 16	15,060 50	48,676 66
	$274 04	$274,201 12	$108,802 43	$383,003 55

"These figures show that as much has been accomplished in the line of reducing official expenditures as can reasonably be expected so long as the present system is continued. The Society maintains the position taken long ago, that all the official out-door relief can properly be dispensed with, and claims that a critical examination of the data afforded by the results of the system here, and of the results effected in other and larger cities which have abandoned it, will demonstrate the correctness of this position."

All cases are now registered and a complete record of the poor of the city kept. All applications for city relief are investigated under the direction of this Society by two officers especially detailed by the Police Department.

The Society has been assisted from the first by the development of co-operative societies, which make employment the basis of relief.

Each year has seen the development of some provident scheme. In 1880 the "Fitch Creche" was founded. Starting from the smallest of beginnings, it has now a

monthly attendance of over 700 children. Mothers appreciate the advantage of leaving children at an institution where they can be well cared for while themselves away at work, and are now contributing one-sixth of all the running expenses.

In 1881 a wood-yard was opened, proving a great success; furnishes employment to all able-bodied male applicants for city relief; is self-supporting.

In 1882 the creation of a coal savings fund filled a place, the need of which had long been felt by the society, inducing as it does the dependent classes to lay up a sum sufficient to purchase the winter's supply of coal, and teaching all the value of prudence and forethought.

During the past two years, through the munificence of Mr. Benjamin Fitch, of New York, the Society has been enabled to build a magnificent structure to be known as the "Fitch Institute." With the completion of this building, many provident schemes long desired will be undertaken, including a Provident Dispensary, Provident Laundry, Penny Bank and Model Coffee Room. Already a library and reading room, under the management of the Mechanics' Institute, has been opened and is doing good work.

The discouragements which the Society have had, have arisen from the ignorance of our citizens as to its objects and aims; to the hostility of the official keepers of the public purse, fearing an interference with their prerogatives; the large expense necessarily attending the maintenance of its existence; but more than all, the difficulty of finding efficient and faithful workers, either as visitors or as members of the district committees. Without such helpers no society can succeed and do the necessary work.

Our past success the Society believes to have been due

1. To having a cause appealing to the common sense of the people.

2. To interesting the best element of the press in the preparation of our work.

3. To a careful avoidance of anything having a political bias.

4. To a persistent presentation of our views in print.

5. To our having answered no attack but keeping steadily on with our work.

6. To the care taken to keep the expenses as low as possible.

In looking to the future the Society can not but feel encouraged; it has lived down the opposition of the many who looked at first with suspicion at its work, and is

now happy to number many such as its firm friends; the growth of public opinion is in its favor, and the acknowledged necessity for similar societies in all large cities. With sufficient workers the Society can have no fear for its continued prosperity.

The Society looks with much favor upon the idea of a National Council; we trust it will be the means of drawing all kindred societies into closer relations with each other, and enabling each to do the more effective work through a knowledge of the difficulties and labors of the others, and by the more efficient co-operation resulting from such a movement.

POUGHKEEPSIE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

I. The *methods* and *principles* of so-called charity organizations are valuable everywhere without regard to the size of the population, *but* where a city's population is not so large as to develop much street begging or give rise to much hidden and unrelieved suffering or to much complication and *duplication* in relief-work, or finally to render *personal* acquaintance with those seeking relief difficult if not impossible — in such a city where the evils of the ordinary methods of relief are not *very glaring* and the benefits of a more *complete system* seem not to be made very striking, the maintenance of a *special charity organization society* will be very difficult, and unless there happen to be a few persons, who have *time, means* and *interest*, is *hardly to be advised.*

II. Our city comes very nearly under the description here given. Still our Society is on the whole a success. Its expense as you see is small, and we have no thought of disbanding, but it does not appeal to the public as a glaring necessity, but mainly to the few thoughtful and appreciative *individuals* who patiently do its work.

III. I would venture to suggest, finally, what we shall probably ourselves do, and what is desirable in a city so small as ours.

1. That the connection with the city relief be made as intimate as possible, and that the Society itself be organized to some extent directly to administer relief.

2. That the visitation be so organized that it shall be made geographically to cover the city. This, after the model of the Provident Society, of Boston, should constitute a visiting patrol of charity, which should have under its supervising inspection every house where pauperism or suffering could hide, if not weekly at least every month. The districts should be made very small

and this visitation can, if necessary for the time of the visitor, be made on Sunday.

I have not thought it necessary to give you the details of the working of our Society, with its set of books, records, etc. They are those of almost all the organizations of the land.

The managers represent every church and every charitable agency of the city, the city government, through the Mayor, Chief of Police, Alms House Board, and Superintendent of the Poor.

We shall look with great interest to the papers presented at Louisville, and search for such suggestions as may be of use in our work.

For our own work, the Executive Committee regard the method of individual or family visitation as preferable to the territorial method, though possibly the former might be supplemented by more of the latter with good success.

The Executive Committee feel that the past year has been, on the whole, the best in our work, of any hitherto.

The points which most need attention are:

1. The establishing of a labor test, and employment bureau for men.

2. The proper treatment of the children of pauperized and vicious families.

3. The adjustment of some system of relief for needy cases otherwise provided for.

4. A closer connection of our work with the other charitable agencies especially with the City Relief.

For the Executive Committee.

E. A. Lawrence, Jr.,
Chairman.

Poughkeepsie, July 11, 1883.

UNION FOR HOME WORK, PITTSFIELD, MASS.

Five years have now passed since this Society was organized, and those most familiar with the details of the work, believe there has been a steady progress toward the point aimed at by its founders. Few tramps now visit our homes, seeking what they may devour; begging from door to door has been so generally discouraged that we see little of the evil resulting from such a practice. Children whose parents were not able to provide for them have been clothed and brought into the day and Sunday schools.

This Society maintains a sewing school for children; a mothers' meeting where women are taught sewing; an employment branch.

This Society also distributed the funds of the town, disbursing last year $2,588, among eighty-eight families.

The visitors hold monthly meetings for conference and discussion. The Society also works with the Boston Young Men's Christian Union in giving to poor children a week in the country.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEWPORT, R. I.

The Society, at an early day, placed definitely in view two objects; first, patient investigation of the history and condition of all applicants for charity; secondly, full co-operation between almoners of charity, whether from public or private funds.

As time has gone on, various plans for increasing the usefulness of the Society have suggested themselves, and several of them have been adopted. Our work is not an ostentatious one, and we value the opportunity of annually presenting to our fellow citizens an account of what we have done, as we earnestly desire their aid and their intelligent sympathy with the efforts we are making.

The Overseers of the Poor are in daily communication with us; and our work goes on hand in hand with theirs. Thus we have an accurate knowledge of every person who applies for relief in Newport.

One very practical side of our work has been, through our visitors, to remind the improvident that their poverty in winter is self-imposed, and to persuade them to lay by something each week while they can. A Savings Society, with this special object in view, was formed three years ago, and the success of the movement has been more and more marked each year.

The sums collected have been as follows:

To December, 1880	$690 19
From December, 1880, to December, 1881	1,370 29
From December, 1881, to December, 1882	1,602 04
Total	$3,662 52

This money has been collected from house to house, weekly, by a body of ladies who are the visitors for the Charity Organization Society. During no year since the work began have the visitors been so faithful and regular as during the past year. The work is now done wholly by volunteers, and to their spirit and persistence are owing, in chief measure, the results we are able to show. Over eight thousand visits have been paid.

Our "School for Household Work," to which allusion has been made in former reports, has been useful in this very matter of teaching children to perform skillfully the ordinary duties which arise in the household. The sessions of the school have been continued through the year, and the number of pupils has been as large as could be accommodated. The instruction has been given in the form of object lessons, and the children have taken pride in carrying what they have learned into practice at home.

As our Society proceeds resolutely upon the principle of not giving relief, it is very dependent upon the co-operation of those associations in our midst through whose officers charity funds are disbursed. This co-operation we have always enjoyed, and for it we are very thankful. The Overseers of the Poor, as has already been said, are well informed concerning all our investigations, and act in the fullest accord with us. We are also aided by those who disburse the Newport Poor Fund and the Aid for the Aged Fund. The Dorcas Society has a visitor in each ward of the city, and materially aids us by providing necessary clothing. The Newport Hospital and the Home for Friendless Children open their doors cheerfully at our request. The churches work in harmony with us, and some individuals are pleased to bestow their gifts in accordance with our advice.

In August last we were asked to give information and advice to friends who were considering the need of improved dwellings for the working classes in Newport.

From what has been said, it is readily seen that every effort which this Society makes beyond its work of investigation into the circumstances of all who apply for relief, is in the direction of preventing pauperism. Indiscriminate giving is notoriously a cause, not the cure of beggary. We believe that no candid person who studies our work, or who reads our reports from year to year, will say that our efforts are visionary. We feel an honest pride as we see men and women, who have begged, saving money; as we see those who were contented to be supported by alms in idleness, seeking employment; as we see self-respect returning to those who had well nigh lost it. The city is expending in charity far less than formerly, and what is more important, that which is spent goes where it is really needed, and suffering is more generally prevented.

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK,

is the outgrowth of the now widely recognized need of co-operation and harmonious action on the part of the charitable agencies of every community. This co-operation is necessary for the efficiency of the agencies in question, for adequate aid to the poor, and for the protection of the public from the evils which follow in the train of continuous and depraved pauperism. No community in the land requires it more urgently than New York City.

The initial step was taken October 12th, 1881, by the State Board of Charities in their adoption of the following resolution, viz.:

"*Whereas*, There is in the City of New York a large number of independent societies engaged in teaching and relieving the poor of the city in their own homes, and

Whereas, There is at present no system of co-operation by which these societies can receive definite mutual information in regard to the work of each other, and

Whereas, Without some such system, it is impossible that much of their effort should not be wasted, and even do harm by encouraging pauperism and imposture, therefore

Resolved, That the Commissioners from New York City are hereby appointed a committee to take such steps, as they may deem wise, to inaugurate a system of mutual help and co-operation between such societies."

Under this resolution this Society was formed, and has been incorporated by special legislation, and fairly began work about July, 1882. The main features of its work have been; registration and exchange of reports; promoting co-operation among all charitable agencies; districting the city for work among the poor; obtaining and codifying all information respecting the condition, habits and requirements of the dependent population; and education of the public by publications and otherwise.

REGISTRATION.

Up to the 1st of August, 1883, 60,203 reports have been sent to the Society by the co-operating agencies. Of these 15,674 are workhouse reports which have proved valueless because aliases, lack of residences, etc., make it impossible to identify the parties, and therefore these reports are no longer procured. The remaining 44,329 cases, represent a population (at an average of four to a family) of more than 175,000 persons, which is nearly one-eight of all the inhabitants; and equals the popula-

tion of the City of Buffalo, Cleveland, Pittsburgh or Washington.

Ten thousand eight hundred and fifty-two reports have been sent back to societies and churches giving them the information concerning their beneficiaries obtained from other sources. No such reports were sent to the municipal and some other charities, which do not give out-door relief, else this number would have been larger.

This information can be distributed or returned within three or four hours of its receipt, or after inquiry and thus its benefits are made promptly available to all constituents.

An alphabetical Street Register is also kept, showing how many families in a street have received charitable relief, or have had members in the Penitentiary during the year, their names and at what street number they were reported to have resided. These reports affect more than 13,000 street numbers during the past fifteen months. It should be remembered that this Society has received the returns from only a portion of the distributors of relief, during this period and that no record is kept of the residence of persons sent to the work-house. Under these circumstances these figures have startling significance. It appears from this Street Register that alms-getting families tend to congregate together. A dozen such families are often reported as living at one street number. The greatest number of families reported from one house during fifteen months is 83. In 100 houses selected from our Street Register, we find 1,775 families, or an average of 17¾ families in each house. The average number of charitable recipients in all the houses reported, is 3¼ families, or thirteen persons to each house.

Whether the habit of looking to charity for support is contagious or not, it evidently does not take long to become the fashion in certain localities.

CO-OPERATION.

The effort to secure co-operation has been so far successful, that on August 1st, the charitable agencies which had agreed to report to this Society numbered 160, and they can be classified as follows:

36 General Societies for temporary out-door relief.
6 National Societies for temporary out-door relief.
15 Asylums and Institutions for in-door relief.
103 Churches and religious congregations.

Every church and every society in the city have been invited by circular or letter to send reports to this Soci-

ety, and but few positive refusals to do so have been received. It is believed that most of the societies and churches which now fail to co-operate do so because the matter is not fully understood by them, and that when they know the benefits which they would receive, and which they would confer on the community by so doing, few will still stand aloof.

It is encouraging to note that some of these constituents have unsolicited voted contributions to aid in support of this Society.

DISTRICTING THE CITY.

The policy of the Society in this department is to make haste slowly. It was decided to organize but few districts at first, and to perfect those before attempting more; and to use them as schools for future workers. Thus far but six districts have been formed, covering about one-eighth of the acreage of the city, but embracing about three-eighths of the population. Each district has a governing district committee, an office and paid agent, and is gradually gathering its body of friendly visitors. At present about two hundred and forty earnest men and women are engaged in the district work and in direct contact with the poor, in efforts to elevate and restore them to better conditions in life.

PUBLICATIONS.

For guidance in intelligently helping the poor, the Society has issued a complete classified and analyzed Directory of the Charities of the City, and also a Hand-Book of Legal, Sanitary, Domestic and Prudential suggestions. It has also published and distributed in large numbers, some fifteen papers informing the public of the baleful effects of misapplied charity, and acquainting them with various methods of benefitting and aiding the needy and dependent. This educational branch of the work is most important in this metropolitan city, and will be pushed as material and means are supplied.

In addition the Society has committees at work upon the following problems: The advisability of a more extended system of loan relief; the question of establishing a bureau of legal relief; the matter of supplying limited labor in wood-yards as a labor test; the condition of the labor-markets of the United States, and means and costs of transportation thereto.

In order to obtain a practical result from the aggregated reports sent to this Society by the co-operative agencies during the past winter, some 7,000 of them taken

at random, were classified and tabulated, and from them we learn that over 65 per cent. of them were from men with or without children, and, as far as appeared, able-bodied. And less than 27½ per cent. were from widows with children, or families where the bread-winner was reported to be sick. It cannot be denied that this shows a most undesirable state of things, even allowing for a very large percentage of cases of exceptional hardship, such as severe illness on the part of some other member of the family, accidents, etc. We not only have not had any unusual depression of business during the past fifteen months, but wages have been steadily increasing; and that there should be in this city so large a proportion of men (as compared with widows and single women) seeking relief, is a fact of great importance, and one of which there are, as it appears to us, only three explanations, each one unsatisfactory.

1st. These men may have had regular work at fair wages, during the working part of the year, and failed to lay by enough for the support of their families during the winter, in which case the charity given them was simply a reward of past, and a temptation to future improvidence.

2d. The men who received this relief may indeed have had work, but may have been so insufficiently paid that they could not possibly lay by anything, in which case the relief societies have been offering their little pittance to save the employers of labor from paying fair wages, and have thus been, unconsciously, doing a great injury to every working man and woman in this city.

3d. These men may have found it absolutely impossible to get any work, which shows conclusively that their labor is not needed here, and the relief given to them has simply served to keep them in this city in misery, until they are likely to become so hopeless and degraded that they cannot seek work elsewhere, but will drift into the workhouse or almshouse, and join the miserable throng of vagrants that disgrace our city streets.

After full conference with persons actively interested in many of the larger relief agencies, it was decided to recommend to the community "that all aid given to able-bodied men should be for the purpose of enabling them to find permanent employment, in or out of the city."

Subsequently the same constituents proposed the initiation of a Labor Exchange to facilitate the distribution of applicants to proper kinds and fields of labor, not

only in New York City, but in all parts of the continent. This proposal is still under advisement.

In conclusion the Society contents itself with this brief recital of its progress, and trusts that its spirit and aims are sufficiently indicated by what has been done thus far. The work has been, and must continue for some time to be, that of preparing the ground and laying foundations; a work that is necessarily slow and unpretending. It believes that what has been already accomplished, proves beyond question the great need of such an agency for coalescing and harmonizing the charitable efforts of the community; both as concerns the economic effectiveness of benevolence and the best moral welfare of the poor.

TERRE HAUTE SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY.

This Society was organized May 1st, 1882, supported by yearly subscription, and a donation from county commissioners. Our work, owing to not having the hearty cooperation of the two principal relief societies, has not been as effectual as we could have wished; our work has been confined more to transient cases, street begging, and finding country homes, for orphans and deserted children; in these cases our work has been very effectual; the different societies and churches are beginning to come over a little at a time, and the outlook for the future is very promising. A Friendly Inn is one of the projects to be started in the near future.

SYRACUSE BUREAU OF LABOR AND CHARITIES.

The Bureau of Labor and Charities was organized as a Charity Organization Society, December 20, 1878.

The number of families visited was:

In 1879	420
In 1880	580
In 1881	772
In 1882	1,005

In 1880 the number of applicants for employment was 347; for 126 of whom work was found.

In 1881 the number of applicants for employment was 729; for 176 work was found.

In 1882 the number of applicants for employment was 504; for 215 work was found.

The city out-door relief has been for five years as follows:

1878	$25,112.14
1879	23,060.52
1880	19,102.87
1881	18,583.51
1882	17,002.44

This table shows the gradual reduction of city expenses for out-door relief. The influence and work of the Bureau have been one of the chief causes producing this reduction — better times for laborers, another.

The population of Syracuse, New York, including the villages of Danforth and Geddes, practically a part of the city, is 65,000.

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF INDIANAPOLIS.

This Society was organized December 12th, 1879. It was developed out of the Indianapolis Benevolent Society, organized in 1836, which found it advisable to separate the work of relief from that of investigation. The Society therefore gives no relief, working through already existing relief agencies, and is left to its distinctive work of organizing the moral and charitable forces of the city in the work of preventing poverty, reforming abuses, and promoting provident schemes.

The size of the city makes it peculiarly favorable for the work of this Society. Those interested in charitable work can meet each other, the associated societies act in quick response, and a thorough knowledge is had, both of the condition and needs of the dependent, and of the resources at command.

The marked feature of this Society is its centralization. The rooms of the Society are the headquarters of various charitable agencies. The district committees have their offices in the same building. Telephonic connection is had with all public institutions. Every case of need, accident, or begging is reported to the central office, and is distributed to the district superintendent to whom it belongs. It is at once visited and cared for.

A second gratifying result has been the new interest taken in charitable and reform work, and the new lines of work that have been taken up. The Society has published an occasional Bulletin, distributing twelve hundred to five thousand copies in the families of the city. It has distributed literary matter of other societies; or pamphlets, such as those issued by the Boston and New York societies. It has published in the city papers reports of its work, and studies from its work, until there has resulted a fair education of the people as to its ideas and methods.

The existing societies have taken up larger work. The Indianapolis Benevolent Society has met all needs

by taking up such new work as would facilitate our objects. It now operates a lodging house for tramps, where the work test is enforced, a temporary home for strangers, a wood-yard, a work committee for women, an employment agency, and a Friendly Visitors Association, in addition to its relief. The Flower Mission cares for all the sick poor; has opened a Nurses' Training School; will soon open a Cottage Hospital, and will place a District nurse among the sick poor, during the winter. A large number of Industrial Schools have been opened, teaching hundreds of children.

The Charity Kindergarten Association is operating two kindergartens.

There is a regular visitation of City and County Institutions, and reports made and published. Monthly conferences are held for the reception of reports and the discussion of questions.

Among the results of our work, we note the thorough knowledge of the neglected and dependent classes, the historical register having 3,149 names.

The decline of street begging and tramping; the institution of a stone yard for tramps; the closing of the Vincennes Lottery; the practical closing of the wine rooms; the bettering of the condition of the County Asylum; the promise of a Work House for County prisoners, these have been brought about through the work of this Society.

There are no special discouragements, and yet at every step there is revealed the gravity and magnitude of the problem with which we have to do.

The causes which make for crime, vice, poverty, work faster than do the ameliorating forces. Comparatively little can be done by working on individuals, when the destructive forces work upon the mass. The houses with their over-crowding, the often inadequate wages, the desertion of family, the ignorance of best ways of living, the intemperance, at once the cause and consequence of poverty — these drag down and keep down.

There lingers too, the old idea of charity as a sentiment, and a disposition to work by proxy, by silver and gold instead of by "such as I have" — personal and loving effort.

The very strength of the Society through its centralization, is accompanied by weakness in other directions, as they who work best are few, and the education of the neighborhoods to assume the care of their poor does not go on.

The future of this Society is assured. Once strike the

motive and method of nature and all is well. It is hitching one's wagon to a star. These principles are natural — these objects fall in with the thought of the great All-Father. The people of this city know and value the work of the Society, and come to its help, give it money and personal interest.

THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF BOSTON.

ORGANIZED 1879. INCORPORATED 1881.

The objects of this society are:—

To secure the concurrent and harmonious action of the different charities of Boston, in order

To raise the needy above the need of relief, prevent begging and imposition, and diminish pauperism;

To encourage thrift, self-dependence, and industry through friendly intercourse, advice and sympathy, and to aid the poor to help themselves;

To prevent children from growing up as paupers;

To aid in the diffusion of knowledge on subjects connected with the relief of the poor.

The management of the society is vested in a Board of twenty-two Directors. The Chairman of the Overseers of the Poor, the President of the Boston Provident Association, the President of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, and the President of the Roxbury Charitable Society, are *ex-officio* Vice-Presidents of the Society and members of the Central Board.

The office of the Board is at Room 41, Charity Building, where, under its system of registration, information concerning the relief given and the character of the beneficiaries of forty-seven benevolent agencies and many individuals is received in confidence, recorded and exchanged. Only the Registrar and the clerks under her direction are allowed to examine the records. Inquiries from persons known to be *charitably interested* in any family are promptly answered. Over 8,000 families were registered last season, and the number increases from year to year, as the benevolent learn the value of this work, and the care taken to guard its privacy.

Under the general supervision of the Directors are fourteen District Conferences, three of which have offices in the Charity Building. Each conference is composed of all the charity workers of the District, including the volunteer friendly visitors of the Associated Charities. These visitors now number, in the whole city, between six and seven hundred, and visit nearly fourteen hundred families.

It is the duty of the Conference to see that every application for aid from persons living within the district is thoroughly investigated: to study how applicants for relief can be raised into independence, and to make them self-supporting whenever possible; to obtain aid for deserving applicants unable to earn support from the appropriate sources; and to organize for these purposes a large corps of visitors, so that only a small number of cases shall be assigned to each visitor.

If each person needing aid could be looked after by one person, well to do, or by one society, and if no one would aid poor people not really requiring relief, our problem would be solved. Our object has been therefore (*a*) to learn what persons need aid, (*b*) to find societies and persons to take care of them, (*c*) to prevent the giving of injudicious aid.

Among the difficulties of carrying out this method of caring for the poor, the greatest, unquestionably, arises not from want of money for the relief of distress, but from a want of knowledge on the part of those who are ready and glad to give their money, and on the part of their almoners, as to what persons should be aided and how.

In order to study these questions, we organized in addition to the weekly district conferences, the monthly general conferences and other meetings of various kinds. In these, we have been, it must be confessed, very successful. It could hardly have been anticipated that we could collect together frequently so many people interested to hear about and discuss these subjects.

In the matter of finding persons to take charge of poor families, either independently, or as visitors of conferences, though we have done a great deal, we are yet far from carrying out the original plan of assigning each poor family to some visitor or society. The six or seven hundred visitors of the Associated Charities, the considerable number of other persons who care for families independently, and the various societies are not yet able to accomplish this, but with more knowledge and improved methods it may yet be done.

As regards securing cöoperation between charitable societies (see Tables A. and B. for a list of such agencies)* our success has been considerable but not wholly satisfactory. The fact that we are on such generally friendly terms with all the important societies we believe to be due to our having started with the idea of drawing these societies toward each other and of aiding them to organize

*Omitted from printed proceedings.

their work rather than with the idea of organizing them from the outside,—as "Associated Charities" rather than a "Charity Organization Society."

The ungracious part of critic has sometimes fallen to us, and we have had to suggest restraints and limitations, to discourage new enterprises and to suggest that some of the most popular old ones are tainted by pauperizing influences, helping to make Boston the ideal "easy city to live in;" the focus, in both continents, to which the idle and dissolute have longingly looked for half a century.

Of the organization of the central business department, or registration office, nothing can be said but in praise. It is certain that no such registration of charity work exists in the world, comprising as it does the excellent records of the Overseers of the Poor and the Provident Association, and the reports of most of the charitable societies in the city.

Our dangers lie thick, but not discouragingly, in the path. They seem to be,

1st. That on committees, and as our agents, persons will be employed who have the utmost good will toward the poor, and when they read our principles assent to them: but who, when put to the test of practice, fall back into the easy indulgence of a benevolent feeling. This is not a *general* fault of our society, however.

2d. That committees and agents will not cultivate their ingenuity. Lack of this is sure to lead to reliance on charitable agencies rather than on those which make up ordinary life.

3d. That those who have learned to do our work well will be impatient with others who have not learned, and will not take the necessary pains to teach others.

4th. That we shall be ambitious of numbers, and of occupying the whole ground at once, and so make ourselves weak on all sides by superficial work. Though work in individual cases, which as we give no relief must each be an instance of charity organization, is the only stepping stone to success.

5th. That as we enter into our work, the enthusiasm of our crusade may cool when we realize that there is real hard work to be done. It is so easy, so gratifying to sentimental feelings to give; so hard to dig and grope for the cause of the trouble, to meet and cure it at its source. Without this sustained conviction, an aggressive and ardent force which shall bind the visitors to the service of their clients, the machinery of organized char-

ity would be worse than useless, another "institution" to separate human hearts and minds from human responsibilities.

ERVING WINSLOW,
ELLEN S. HALE,
CHARLES P. PUTNAM.
Committee.

ADDITIONAL REPORTS FROM CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES.

Appended to the report of the Committee on the Organization of Charities in cities, was a series of answers to questions submitted to them by the President of the Conference, Mr. F. H. Wines, of Illinois, which were not read by the chairman of the committee, but were referred without reading to the Publishing Committee, as indeed was the case with the most of the preceding report. The lists of institutions in the several cities and some other detailed statistical matter is omitted from the printed report. The rest is as follows:

PHILADELPHIA.

Strong points of our city system. General cleanliness and good order in the municipal institutions, good food, and excellent medical attendance.

Weak points. The lack of a centralized control, each institution being under a separate Board egotistic about its own management, and not heartily disposed to cooperate with other officials, laboring in the same field.

The lack of expert knowledge on the part of officials conducting the institutions. Very few of them have had any special training for their work. The lack of sufficient room in the county prison, leading to serious overcrowding and demoralization among the inmates.

ACTUAL METHODS OF DEALING WITH CERTAIN CLASSES OF DEPENDENTS.

Paupers: Taken in hand by the association P. S. O. C., in whose district they reside, and efforts made to raise them into independence. These failing, the able bodied are sent to the House of Correction, and the disabled to the Hospitals, Asylums, or the Almshouse.

Lunatics: Our superintendent in the district where the lunatics reside, secures medical certificates, and the approval of the courts for their commitment to the State Hospital for the Insane.

Neglected Children: Local associations P. S. O. C., temporarily provide for them, and endeavor to throw the cost of their maintenance upon their natural guardians. This failing, they are turned over to the Children's Aid Society, or to one of the child-caring institutions.

Foundlings: Foundlings are placed in the "Sheltering Arms," a new institution specially designed for this class.

Vagrants and Street Beggars: An effort is made to get them to accept work, either in the ordinary avenues of employment, or at the Charity Organization Wood Yard. Those who will not work are sent to the House of Correction.

"WHAT FEATURES OTHERS MAY COPY FROM US?"

Our system of local associations, with trained and paid superintendents and large corps of volunteer friendly visitors, putting every part of the city under the supervision of trusted officers, familiar with the provision made by private and public charity for each class of dependents, and enabled to bring to bear upon any family the moral and social forces of a body of earnest and benevolent people. A strong central organization, aiding the local associations and maintaining uniformity and discipline throughout the whole.

"WHEREIN DO WE NEED IMPROVEMENT?"

Our municipal administration of Charity and Correction should be re-organized under one efficient governing body. The Charitable Societies should more heartily and systematically co-operate with each other.

JAMES W. WALK, M. D.,
General Secretary.
1602 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

BUFFALO.

Appended to this report is a list of the charitable and correctional institutions of this city and vicinity; and also a list of the societies for the relief of suffering, or the repression of crime.* The various societies are as a rule well managed and doing a large amount of good.

* Omitted from the printed proceedings.

The "purely municipal charities" are in this city limited to two only, the "Poor Department" and the "Quarantine Hospital," all other institutions being under the direction of the county authorities. Of the former, the statistics referred to in a previous portion of this report show its character and extent. The department is fairly managed, but it is found impossible to prevent constant abuses; the more so as it is an elective office. This society believes that much good would be accomplished if the choosing of the head of the department was vested in the mayor of the city, rather than by the direct votes of the people.

Paupers, when residents of the county, are sent by the overseer of the poor to the County Asylum; when nonresident, but belonging to the state, are sent to their former homes at the expense of Erie county; when inhabitants of other states or of foreign countries, are sent temporarily to the County Almshouse, until transportation is provided by the state agent.

Neglected Children are placed entirely in orphan asylums, at the expense of the county, until homes are provided for them. The County Board of Supervisors employ two agents, one Roman Catholic and one Protestant, to procure homes for this class of cases, and is most successful in its results.

Foundlings. While concurring with the advice of the State Board of Charities that these cases should be sent to the Almshouse as securing a better chance for the life of the child, still we can not but regret the necessity of placing young women in their first confinement in such close contact with the hardened cases from the docks and banks of the canal.

In connection with cases of this character the Society can not speak too highly of the work done by the Asylum of our Lady of Refuge in the reform of abandoned women; no more benevolent charity exists in this city; the great majority of its inmates through its exertions are enabled to return to virtuous and useful lives. The distinguishing feature of its management being the strict, confinement of inmates to the house and grounds during the term of their treatment.

Vagrants and Street Beggars. Assisted by strong and supporting public opinion, the Charity Organization Society has been most successful in preventing this class of cases from any thing like a permanent abode with us and in no direction has exceeding vigilance been more rewarded. The society has found it necessary to prosecute these cases directly; and in each case unless its demand

has been complied in, has had the person arrested and prosecuted in the police courts; the result is that our streets are entirely free from these eye no sores.

Lunatics. The Society would refer to the annual report of the State Board of Charities for 1881 for a full and detailed account of the treatment of cases of this class. Their report covers all asylums in this county.

The Society regrets the necessity of the hardened criminal and those waiting trial for their first offense meeting in the common jail in daily intercourse. In other respects, however, it has little to complain of, in the administration of indoor relief and restraint. The institutions are generally well managed and are doing as good work as their facilities will permit.

The Society would be glad to see the laws regarding the desertion of wives and families made more severe. There is no one cause with us the reason of so much suffering and poverty as this; the society would be glad to have the most severe penalties attached to this the severest crime against family unity. It is safe to say that with us three-quarters of the cases enjoying poor relief are due to this cause and old age.

SYRACUSE (N. Y.) BUREAU OF LABOR AND CHARITIES.

A. We have no *purely municipal charities* other than the city Overseer of Poor.

B. The penitentiary serves as county and city jail aside from the court house cells and the police court cells for temporary detention.

C. *Vagrants*—adults and boys over 14—are either sent to the penitentiary or out of city.

D. The Bureau of Labor and Charities has made *begging* almost unknown in the city by its vigilance and summary arrests.

E. *Criminal boys and girls* under 16 and over 10 are sent to the Western House of Refuge, in Rochester.

G. We have no place for *foundlings*, save to dispose of them for adoption through the city or county poor authorities, or the society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children. Unfortunate girls are either sent to the Alms House for confinement, or by the Bureau or other charity, privately provided for.

H. *Lunatics* are promptly cared for by either county or city poor authorities and committed to the Utica asylum, and thence transferred, if incurable, to the Willard asylum at Ovid, or to the County asylum, Onondaga Hill.

I. *Neglected children* are being more and more brought under the care and disposal of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

J. Our weaknesses will be seen to be many by those having large experience, the greatest felt want being a proper place for boys and girls who are semi-criminal and idle, under the supervision of master and teacher. For such—quite a large class—we have no suitable place whatever. Rochester sends some of a like class in her streets and houses to the Western House of Refuge—she having that privilege by virtue of the location of this institution in her county—whereas only our *criminal* boys and girls can be sent there and I think none but criminals should be sent there by any city. Our need just here seems to be an Industrial School.

Respectfully submitted,

RICHMOND FISK,

General Secretary Bureau of Labor and Charities,

Syracuse, N. Y.

MUNICIPAL CHARITIES, PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES OF BOSTON.

A full report on this subject, although limited by the exclusion of state agencies, which act through and alongside the municipal system, would extend to large proportions, especially if it involved criticism and comparison with similar work in other cities.

We have naturally given it some study in connection with our own efforts to cure and eradicate the evils which impose such costly burdens upon our tax-paying citizens, and we can only aim to collate some observations thus made by the way, and not to furnish a skilled and special report. In the discussion of the subject we owe a great obligation to the valuable report of the Commission on the Treatment of the Poor, made in 1878 by order of the city government of 1876. It were to be wished that by the adoption of some at least of its suggestions, the authorities might have made themselves and our citizens debtors thereto in a practical way.

Premising that on the whole the management of the relief and correctional systems is reasonably economical, generous and honest, we may proceed to an enumeration of the organizations under their various governments. We will then group the various classes of unfortunates and vicious, and in touching upon their actual treatment briefly suggest such improvements as occur to us.

The "settlement" law, under which aid of the city is

only given to those having settlement therein, and is reimbursed by their own cities and towns, or by the state if they have no settlement, until they are passed over to their respective charges, or by enforced assistance of certain kindred if of sufficient ability, probably is well understood. It may be said in passing, that many persons accustomed to administer under this law, believe that it had better be altogether repealed, and that the problems before us would be simpler should every city and town assume the responsibility of its present cases of distress.

Public charitable relief is furnished:

1. *By the overseers of the Poor,* through these agencies:

a. Out door relief. This is administered by its bureau officers and seven agents and visitors, in gifts of groceries and fuel, and grants of money.

b. Income of Trust Funds.

c. The Temporary Home for Women and Children. In the absence of a local poor house within the city limits, temporary cases are received and cared for for a short time, generally not more than two or three days, and a certain labor test applied by exacting domestic assistance from such of the inmates as are able to give it.

d. The Wayfarers' Lodge. Here meals and lodging are given, mostly for work in a woodyard, to male applicants, instead of receiving them into the station houses, as was formerly the practice. The exaction of a fair equivalent in labor for what is received, together with a thorough cleansing, has brought the number of such lodgers down from 200 to 600 nightly, to an average of sixty the past year.

2. *By the Board of Directors of Public Institutions,* as follows:

a. The Lunatic Hospital. This institution is capable of containing only about one-fourth of the city insane, the rest being boarded in the state hospital, yet there were twenty-one private patients treated last year.

b. The Almshouse at Austin Farm. This is for women, and of course being often old, feeble and sick, is to a great degree a hospital. A large farm in connection with the institution supplies, besides a large quantity of vegetables, its own milk and more than $5,000 worth to other city institutions.

c. Almshouses at Deer Island and Rainsford Island. This group includes the almshouse for men, of whom all who are able labor at stone cutting, and a female pauper hospital.

d. The Charlestown Almshouse. In this institution only men with their wives are received, as well as some other paupers.

e. Truant School, Deer Island. This is for boys alone, sentenced for continued and habitual truancy, by officers appointed for that purpose, and taught by a body of teachers during their sentence.

f. The House of Industry. This is the place of confinement for drunkenness and minor offenses. The causes of sentence during the past year were: drunkenness, 8,858; all others, 1,545. Sewing machines and stone cutting furnish the employment.

g. The Houses of Reformation for Boys and Girls. These establishments for minor offenses are not full, and their numbers are decreasing, through the increase of private institutions and other causes. Schools are kept and the boys work upon a farm.

h. The House of Correction. This institution is for males and females sentenced for longer periods and graver offenses. Sewing machines and finishing clothing, besides the work of the establishment, are the occupations of the inmates.

i. The Marcella Street Home. Neglected and pauper children of both sexes are the inmates. Instruction is given not only in studies, but in order, cleanliness and decency, and through agents homes are found for them as far as possible, mostly with farmers.

3. *The Trustees of the City Hospital.* The rule of admission is, as stated by a former Superintendent: "After a careful consideration of the whole matter, it seems to come to this: that there is one simple test to be applied to every case, viz., 'Is it *humane* to reject this applicant? Whatever be the cause of present illness and distress, and in the absence of suitable receptacles elsewhere in the city for the intemperate and vicious who are very sick, it seems *not to be humane to deny temporary care to such cases.*'"

4. *The Board of Aldermen or City Council Administering:*

a. The City Soup: This is distributed during the winter months at the Police Stations, and under the authority of the Police Officers.

b. Trust Funds: There are also to be enumerated, the Small Pox Hospital, the Jail, the Public Baths, the work of the City Physician, the Truant and Probation Officers.

In the way of general suggestions we should again urge, as was done by the Committee of 1878, the exten-

sion of the control of the Overseers to all public agencies for the relief of the poor, so that their course should be followed through them all, and that they should be separated from criminals. Also, that the present opportunity, in the organization of our Associated Charities, should not be allowed to pass without distinctly invoking the aid of the voluntary labors of private individuals in all the official agencies of relief. Says James Stanfield, of England, formerly President of the Poor-Law Board: "I believe, that in all officialism, it will become more and more necessary to get some link with voluntary and outside work." If it is possible, the considerable expenses for entertainments, excursions, cigars, which are charged to the various institutions in the auditor's books should be eliminated or much reduced.

We proceed to a hasty enumeration of the classes subjected to municipal care.

Paupers and Vagrants. The gift of city soup, against which the overseers of the poor, years ago, recorded their disapproval, is even of doubtful legality, and should, we believe, be wholly done away. Labor, sufficiently hard to be a real test, should accompany all relief, and in the almshouses the facility of coming and going at will should be greatly checked. In the Wayfarers' Lodge separate cells should be given each applicant. Under our system of outdoor relief a pauper class is growing up. Steps should be taken to reduce, and to lead to the entire abolition of out door relief, which under our laws is very generally regarded as a legal right by the recipients.

Drunkards. The great evil of ten day sentences to the House of Industry is the crying ooe here (the ten days is in practice shortened to nine), and although it would seem possible to identify repeating offenders and to secure the longer sentence incurred thereby; in the rush and hurry of the court rooms, it is not so. Out of a total of 9,363 persons sentenced to Deer Island last year, 7,933 were committed as drunkards for only ten days, some of these six to ten times in the year, "hardly long enough," says the chaplain, "to get washed and clothed and in their right mind." For their health the physician says of many cases as a boon to themselves and a protection to the community, they should be "forcibly detained until in the estimation of the attending physicians their discharge would be deemed safe." The superintendent tells us that the burden of the institution on the city would be enormously reduced by having the

continuous labor which the proper enforcement of sentences to frequent offenders would permit. An act of legislature to enable a magistrate to visit the institutions, and there carry out the sentence, which should be only preliminary in court, seems to be the only recourse. Women can be transferred on long sentences to the excellent reformatory prison at Sherburn.

Truants. Industrial education would probably attract many children to the schools, who are restive under the present system. Meanwhile the offenders should be separated from criminals, and it would be interesting to try the experiment whether these rebels to our common schools might not prove responsive to training of the eye and hand.

Neglected Children. While placed together as at the Marcella Street Home, family influence is impossible. Efforts are being made and should be increased through the employment of sufficient agents, to place these children in homes as fast as possible. The law which obliges parents to support minor children also should be very punctually enforced. To many parents the ease with which they can disembarrass themselves of their offspring is a serious temptation.

Lunatics. The distressing increase of this unfortunate class makes necessary at present the boarding of many city cases, far away from their friends and kindred, in state institutions, which is an undoubted hardship.

Sick Paupers. Excessive medical charity is as possible as any other form of pauperizing. To classify and charge to their proper percentage all who are justly chargeable to the state or other cities, is only a reasonable precaution, and the oversight of the Overseers of the Poor might check the reception of the purely vicious or thriftless to give room for all who need aid, at a moment of weakness or incapacity.

Deserving Poor. The Trust Funds are wisely and honestly dispensed, but would not our Associated Charities Organization be a safer and surer channel for these benefactions, designed often for those who have seen better days, for the shrinking class who need the most, but who have to be sought out, discriminated and befriended, which official agencies can scarcely undertake to do?

Criminals.—Variety of occupation would seem, if less productive than contracts for stone cutting and tailoring, to be a better means of driving out the possession of evil by cultivating the natural taste which almost all have for some kind of manual labor. And the oversight of the after full discharge or on probation, is certainly one

most effective ways in which voluntary effort may co-operate with official action.

ERVING WINSLOW, *Chairman*,
For Committee of Directors of Associated Charities.

CHARITIES OF THE CITY OF INDIANAPOLIS.

A list of the charitable and correctional institutions of the city of Indianapolis is herewith appended; also a list of the societies and agencies for the relief of suffering and repression of crime.* Our city has a population of one hundred thousand, and is a railroad center. Its youth and rapid growth have not favored the formation of those agencies for the care of the neglected and dependent which are to be found in larger cities. The public care of the criminal and poor is still political, and what little acquaintance an officer gains both with his work and with the classes with which he has to do, is rendered of little value, as he is liable to displacement at the next election.

The correctional institutions located within the city are the jail and station houses. The inmates of the jail average about two hundred per month. The present sheriff does all he can to make the place comfortable, and to classify the inmates. But the fact that there is no work, and no room for the separation of young and old, the aged in crime and those caught out in crime's first confusion, forbids that care which is demanded. At present, under the repeated presentations of the subject, by the Charity Organization Society, the County Commissioners are moving in the direction of a County Work-house. Under the present law almost all criminals are prosecuted by the County Prosecutor, and become county prisoners, so the Station-houses are only houses of temporary detention.

The city gives no relief, that being the function of the Township Trustee, and from the County Treasurer. At present, the amount of relief is comparatively small being about $8000 for the year. The Trustee is elected, and liable to change every two years. It is impossible but that much relief should be given unwisely. But the whole system is wrong. Each individual receiving public aid should be under the care of some society which substitutes personal care for officialism. The small amount that the poor of the city now receive, shows that they could be cared for by the voluntary societies, at a small additional charge upon them.

*Omitted from the printed proceedings.

It is to be hoped that before long the whole system of public relief, in large cities, will be broken up.

The voluntary societies for the care of the poor are growing along the line of revealed need, and are gradually assuming the care of those who have fallen out by the way.

Neglected children may be committed by one of the Judges, to the Orphan Asylum, the Woman's Reformatory, or the House of Refuge. There is needed an intermediate place — a State Home or Industrial School, for those who are not criminal, but are only neglected. Mention must be made of the County Homes established under a law passed in 1881, by which all children in County Asylums may be taken out, and placed in a County Home. Whenever the number reaches twenty-five, another home is founded. The children go to the public schools, and in all ways resume their place in society. The care is personal. The results have been gratifying in the progress of the children. Under this law, some five or six homes have been established. While there are laws against street-begging, they are not enforced. But street-begging is materially lessened by the Charity Organization Society.

THE MUNICIPAL CHARITIES OF NEW YORK CITY

are exhibited in the following tables:*

Farther analysis and information regarding these, as well as many of the voluntary charities of the city which receive state or city aid, may be gathered from the compendium of the United States census for 1883, to which reference is made.

The weak points of the Municipal Charitable and Correctional system of New York City, are those which unavoidably inhere in all departments of public administration which are controlled by partisan influences, intensified in proportion to the magnitude of the expenditures, and the number of officers and office-seekers of this vast and rapidly growing city. In this presence these points need no repetition.

Furthermore, the Department of Public Charities and Corrections has three co-equal and co-ordinate chiefs, amenable to no superior executive head, with the inevitable weakness and confusion of divided authority and responsibility. Also, the time and attention of the three commissioners, being absorbed in the details of the management of more than a score of institutions, and their

*Omitted from the printed proceedings.

10,000 inmates and 500 officials, which management should be committed to a competent head of each institution, none remain to be given to efforts to study the causes, to diminish the volume and to check the increase of pauperism, crime and insanity. And being controlled largely by party legislation at Albany, and robbed of the right of local self-government, all laudable efforts in the direction of research and improvement would be thwarted if they infringed at all upon party claims and prerogatives.

The other noticeable defects are:

1. The absence of any fixed principles or system to raise the morals of the inmates, especially those of the work-house, and to turn them back into the world better than when they entered, or better fitted to lead honest, self-supporting lives. On the contrary, the influence of the correctional establishments is degrading and corrupting; the practice of overcrowding or doubling up is tolerated, and vicious comrades have large opportunities for contaminating their fellows.

2. The absence of any inducement of promotion or tenure of office to the subordinate officials, to be faithful, diligent and progressive. This is shown by the very large proportion of changes which occur every year among the officials.

3. The consequent powerlessness of the superintendents of any of the several institutions to carry out definite plans for bringing their own work up to a higher standard of efficiency and discipline.

The strong points of the administration consist in the heathful location of the city institutions, in their general cleanliness, in the good quality of food provided, in growing improvements in the material structure of the buildings, and in the physical condition of many of their inmates, as well as in the many faithful and interested officials to be found in the department, in spite of the faults of the general system and the discouragements to ambition and fidelity.

The remedy for the evils above suggested was well set forth before your eighth annual conference at Boston, in 1881, by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell (see proceedings p. 168); and a careful study of her paper is recommended to those interested to pursue the subject farther.

In conclusion it may be remarked that the large majority of thoughtful and well-informed persons in New York City, who have studied the subject, are convinced that aid extended from the public funds to so-called private charitable societies, is a grevious error, fraught

with numerous abuses, and with a tendency to increase the evils they are set to lessen; and that if any public aid to such societies is ever justifiable, it should only be given to stimulate and supplement private charity. Moreover the State or City should be actively represented on the Board of Management of every Society assisted by either; and all grants should be so conditioned as to secure at least an equal amount of private support, to insure economy, and to compel the exclusive application of the moneys to the alleged objects. Furthermore, the annual reports of all such societies should be published and circulated for the information of the public.

We have not included in our report any reference to societies and institutions outside of New York City (except "branches" of those located within the city), fearing to trespass upon the reports of other Charity Organization Societies.

HENRY A. PELLEW (by C. D. K.),
CHAS. A. BACON, M. D.,
CHAS. D. KELLOGG,
Special Committee.

The following reports were then read by the persons named below.

THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF CINCINNATI.

BY A. C. SHATTUCK, SECRETARY AND DELEGATE.

This society was organized in 1879, and a summary of its work since that time has been given to the public in its three printed annual reports. This work has not only covered the legitimate ground of such an Association, viz.: the careful investigation of all cases of actual or ostensible need, through sympathetic but clear and cool-headed visitors, and the giving advice to charitable persons and societies as to the proper direction of their bounty; but has also involved the collection and distribution of relief funds for those purposes for which, in most of the older eastern cities, ample provision is made by well endowed benevolent associations and by the municipal poor taxes, neither of which in Cincinnati are equal to the demand.

This double labor is unfortunate, both in its tending, with the popular mind, to confound the Associated Charities organization with ordinary relief-giving societies; and its devolving upon the directors of the several ward-districts burdens which they are reluctant to assume in addition to their advisory functions.

Moreover these periodical calls upon the generous for money have embarrassed our special appeals for donations to the support of our central office. So that we have not been in financial condition to pay a General Secretary until within the last six months.

Despite these hindrances to our best work — perhaps in part as a result of them — our Association has gained a steadily growing recognition from the most intelligent and influential people as the only society in the city capable of dealing with the problems of pauperism, vagabondage and kindred social evils, in the most rational manner; insomuch that when last February, the disastrous inundation of the Ohio valley made thousands of our city families the temporary recipients of charity, a most important part of the relief work was put upon our members, and but for our existence there would have been no machinery of distribution at all equal to the two-fold responsibility of helping the suffering and exposing the imposters, who, as usual in such critical times, flocked to take possession of the spoils.

From this flood dates a considerable increase to our funds, and our ability to put the numerous details of our business under the charge of a paid secretary, who gives several hours a day to office duty, and who is gradually completing the registration of the cases reported from the district agents and from such benevolent societies as are willing to co-operate with us.

Cincinnati is now, with the exception of one sparsely settled ward in which thus far it has been difficult to find suitable persons for the management and financial conduct of a branch society, divided into districts, each of which has a paid agent, called a superintendent, for the work of investigation, and an office open at designated hours of the week, in some cases daily, in others three times a week.

Each district raises the money for its own expenses save when an occasional special grant is made from the central treasury. And, under the new order of things resulting from our more complete organization at the central office, regular reports are made by the district superintendents to the General Secretary.

There is yet a great lack of co-operation with us on the part of relief societies, very few of which give us any information of the persons helped by them. So, too, there is considerable unsuppressed beggary, although our citizens have learned much from our systematic and persistent emphasis of the cruelty to the deserving poor of indiscriminate and impulsive giving to vagrants.

There is little reason for despairing of our ability in due time, to persuade a large majority of those persons and societies, which have at heart the reduction of poverty, to allow us to save them the waste of energy and money through our general registry of applicants for aid throughout the city; and the almost entire banishment from our midst of the street beggar can be effected with the increase of vigilance upon the part of our agents. The peril we have most to apprehend — shared by other communities and by all associations whose efficiency depends upon the voluntary good will of men and women — is the difficulty — which grows as the first heat of enthusiasm in behalf of a new interest subsides, of finding capable people who have leisure and disposition to engage in our work. Already we discover that the devoted few upon whose shoulders are upborne most of the good causes of our city, which demand self denying effort, are those upon whom alone we can permanently rely in the work of visitation and of money raising. But we are consoled with the consideration that it is such as they whose presence, whenever they dedicate themselves to a service of humanity, is equal to the weight of tenfold their number of half-hearted people Still the future of our association has its shadows as well as its hopeful promise.

The statistics of work of the Cincinnati Associated Charities during the period of high water, from February 12th to March 5th, 1883, were as follows:

Number of families relieved	5,260
Number of persons relieved	24,111
Number of rations issued	105,144
Number of families supplied with clothing	2,046
Number of families supplied with bedding	1,916
Number of families supplied with coal	647
In addition 86 tons of coal were distributed.	
Number pairs of boots and shoes given out	3,991

THE DETROIT ASSOCIATION OF CHARITIES.

RICHARD R. ELLIOTT, SECRETARY AND DELEGATE.

Mr. President, Gentlemen and Ladies: It is not my purpose to inflict upon this Assembly any tiresome array of statistics or columns of figures. The summary of each year's opperations of the association which I have the honor to represent, has been given to the public in its annual reports; such details are of local interest to the community directly affected thereby.

Nor have I any new theories to submit having refer-

erence to the care of the poor in cities; my purpose is to present a brief outline of what has been accomplished in the removal of chronic evils, and what is claimed to have been effected by our association in improving the condition of the poor, despite the difficulties encountered in the progress of our work.

Built upon the bank of the strait through which flow the waters of the Great Lakes above on their way to Niagara and the Atlantic ocean, Detroit is a seaport city of some importance.

Upon the Canada shore directly opposite, is the terminus of an extensive system of Canadian railways whose trains are brought across the river on steamers to connect with American lines extending in all directions. *The city is a central point in the waterways of western commerce and of international railways.*

From its position it dominates a frontier line extending from Lake St. Clair to Lake Erie, and being thus accessible, has for nearly half a century received annually a considerable percentage of the needy poor of the provinces of Canada and more or less of the newly arrived and worse conditioned of the immigrants who had been assisted as far as Quebec or Montreal.

Its present population is underestimated at 150,000 souls. The city has always made liberal provision by annual taxation for the support of her poor, while a very heavy burden has been borne by the county of Wayne, of which Detroit is the county seat, for the expense of alien paupers coming principally from Canada and for transient cases not entitled to the benefits of citizenship.

Prior to the year 1880, the care of the poor under the municipal government was in the hands of a salaried official known as the director of the poor, under whose management the poor fund was distributed. His powers were absolute and his drafts upon the county treasurer were also honored for the relief of transient cases.

The system, which had been shaped for the requirements of a small community, was not at all adapted for the disposition of a fund as large as had become necessary for a population five times greater than it was at the period of its adoption, and for many years it had been subject to gross abuse in the manner in which aid was given to the poor and in the methods of investigation which had prevailed, which were faulty and unsatisfactory and leading to a waste of the fund. It resulted that a large per centage of the money annually provided by the citizens and intended for the assistance of worthy and neccessitous people was diverted from its benevo-

lent purposes and wasted upon unworthy recipients under the dictation of party influence in particular wards of the city.

It is a lamentable fact that by the abuse of this system brawny and barefaced idlers obtained the means to live without work, while too often the more timid and deserving, needing only temporary assistance, were denied it.

From such a prolific nursery was begotten a race of chronic paupers whose persistent and impudent assurance had in times past disgusted the benevolent in their charitable endeavors to reach deserving want.

Other evils were co-existing. No legal restraint had been placed upon street begging; citizens were continuously pestered day and night, in their homes and places of business, by male and female professional beggars; while imposters adroitly procured what was intended for alms and contributed to the same individual, by the city, the churches, societies, and by the benevolent. The amount of tax levied for the poor fund had steadily increased from year to year until the burden had become oppressive. By the courage and persevering efforts of a lady, a reform of seemingly chronic abuses was inaugurated. Mrs. Isabel G. D. Stewart, who had long been identified with charitable works in Detroit, induced the mayor of the city to call a public meeting at which the subject of the relief of the poor was thoroughly discussed. The plan of the associated charities was explained at this meeting and subsequently adopted as a purifying remedy for existing evils. The parent Detroit Association of Charities was finally organized in the fall of 1878. The London and Buffalo organizations served as models for the working machinery.

With substantial assurance of financial support, officers were elected, the city was mapped into districts, and efficient committees and visitors appointed for each.

The work of the first season comprised the investigation of 1,200 families who had been receiving aid from the city, reports of whose cases were filed in the central office. This scrutiny was made by reliable gentlemen and was thorough.

At first the director of the poor was favorably inclined toward the Association, but the tell-tale results of the investigations made, revealing so large a percentage of families receiving aid from the city who were able to care for themselves and the subsequent request from the Association that such aid should be discontinued, so disgusted the municipal almoner that he turned

from the Association and declined to recognize or heed its recommendations.

Soon after it was officially announced that the city poor fund had been exhausted. This was in mid-winter, at a time when distress was still prevalent among the poorer classes in certain localities of the city. In this crisis prompt action was taken by the Association to provide relief for such as would be likely to suffer. Although the functions of the association did not contemplate the giving of alms, yet it could arrange that such would be furnished in a contingency of this kind. To effect this substantially, a relief and aid society was established under its auspices to serve as a co-operating medium and to take the place of the exhausted municipal fund.

Its officers and functions were distinct.

A store house and wood yard were provided and stocked with necessaries which were supplied to the needy on orders honored in kind, issued by its agents in favor of such families as were certified by the Association of Charities to be worthy of assistance. The arrangement worked satisfactorily. There were no ascertained instances of suffering among the poor for the want of food or fuel. At the approach of spring the affairs of the Relief and Aid Society were closed. $2,500 had been generously contributed at short notice by the citizens of Detroit to carry on its operations. The experience of the first year, which incidentally brought the Association face to face with the entire dependent population of the city enabled its officers to form a fair idea of the limit which could safely be placed upon the municipal outlay, or poor fund. When the financial budget for the succeeding year was being made up, the Director of the Poor asked for $35,000. The Association declared this amount to be too large and insisted upon its reduction. It was accordingly cut down to $22,000, making a difference of $13,000, which amount was saved to the tax payers of Detroit for a single year.

Howevever, as co-operation with the director of the poor was now no longer to be depended upon by the Association and as the revival of business and manufacturing interests had brought about an active demand for all kinds of labor, it was deemed advisable to suspend active operations by the Association and to concentrate for the present time all efforts possible upon some plan which would bring about a reform in the municipal treatment of the poor. At the subsequent session of the legislature a strong delegation of mem-

bers were sent to the state capitol who secured the passage of a law abolishing the old system of managing the poor of the city and creating a board of poor commissioners who were to be non-partisan in politics, to consist of four members, nominated by the mayor, and who, on and after January 1st, 1880, were to have full control over the poor fund and all other matters relating to the care and management of this department of the city government. The gentlemen composing this Board were to serve without compensation. To oppose the passage of this great measure of reform, politicians of both parties attended the legislature and made a strong lobby in opposition.

It required persistent efforts on the part of the most influential members of the Association to defeat this lobby, and their success was considered at the time a decided victory won in a humane cause by the Association. To sum up the work of the parent organization as briefly as possible, it may be stated:

1st. That, by the system of investigation inaugurated for the first time, the true status of the recipients of aid from the city was ascertained, so that the good could be sifted from the bad, if the authorities so desired.

2nd. That during the severe winter of 1878–9, when the poor fund had become exhausted, the Association undertook the care of the poor in the city and supplied their wants.

3d. That the reduction of the amount to be placed in the estimates of the city for a single year saved the tax payers $13,000.

4th. That the abolition of the old system of poor relief with all its corrupting features and the inauguration of the present Board of Poor Commissioners which had been brought about by the efforts of the Association, was of itself a most salutary reform effected in the interests of humanity and tending to the good repute of the city of Detroit.

This record speaks for itself and the thanks of the community are eminently due to the gentlemen who gave their most valuable time for the accomplishment of so much permanent good work.

Following these events, early in 1880 ensued the reorganization and re-establishment for active work of the present Detroit Association of Charities. The time was deemed auspicious and it was expected that the friendly co-operation of the new Board of Poor Commissioners, which the law had called into existence through the efforts of our predecessor, would greatly aid in the re-

vival and practical application of the purifying work and elevating tendencies which the Association desired to effect among the poor of Detroit; and in effecting a more perfect method of dealing with temporary distress by providing employment and preventing pauperism among those whom misfortune had reduced to dependency. In the newly formed Association an amended constitution and laws framed and designed for extensive operations, were adopted. Some valuable members of the original association retired, but new blood and greater numbers succeeded. There was no lack of assurance of financial support. A series of standing committees was made up of men fitted to consider and advise upon all the important objects in the scope of future work. A labor bureau was established, placed in charge of a committee of executive ability and practical knowledge and put into working order. To carry out the most prominent feature in the mission of the Association, the city, to the extent of four square miles was divided into nine relief districts and committees selected for each.

To concentrate the work of district committees and to make such more accessible to the public, three districts in the eastern, three in the central and three in the western were grouped and a district office for winter service provided for each division, to each of which was attached a salaried district agent or visitor. Cases of distress or those requiring investigation could be made known by telephone or otherwise to the proper district office and given immediate attention by the district agent in charge.

The duty of the latter was to make investigations, attend the weekly meetings of each district committee attached to the office, keep their records and report each day at 9:00 A. M. to the secretary at the central office. The supervision of all district work was directly confided to the secretary, but a standing committee were especially charged to look after this important feature of all associations of this kind. The secretary procured daily reports from the office of the poor commission, of the names of those receiving aid from the city, and the amount of such aid. If there appeared any new names among those received daily, investigation of the case immediately followed through the district committee. Should any unfavorable feature appear in these reports, the opinion of the committee of the district was communicated to the Secretary of the Poor Commission.

This is a brief outline of the system which has been

worked out in Detroit. It has been given a fair trial and in its main features may be found similar in theory perhaps to that of similar associations in cities corresponding in size to Detroit. But there may be an essential difference in the respective fields of operations.

In our ninth district, for instance, situated in the extreme northeastern part of the city, is a large Polish population. It is not accessible by street cars and requires miles of pedestrian labor to traverse, besides, for all intents and purposes, in the pursuit of reliable information, an ordinary district visitor, without either a knowledge of the Polish language or an interpreter, might as well go through the suburbs of Warsaw. And yet this is a very populous district, in which the investigations copied out on the usual form on the first visit during the six months of winter, exceed five hundred cases reported to the central office. A worse state of things exists in the extreme northwestern part of the city, in which are located our districts one and two. Here may be found a large population of Poles, Bohemians and Germans, covering a territory nearly as large. The work of the association in Detroit has been productive of much good in a general way to the community at large. The public have been in a measure educated to the practice of committing the relief of all cases of alleged distress to an association having facilities to examine and determine upon the merits of applicants and to provide by employment or otherwise, some means to prevent pauperization.

Many reforms have been effected since the work of associated charities was commenced in Detroit, besides the important results heretofore referred to; street begging has been almost entirely abolished, and its practice now subjects the offender to fine and imprisonment in the House of Correction, when convicted on complaint under the provisions of an ordinance framed and passed at the request of this Association.

A drunken or indolent husband failing to provide for his family, may be arrested for their non support, and on conviction sentenced to the House of Correction, and a per diem allowance paid his wife during the period of his incarceration, under the provisions of a statute passed by the legislature at the request of this Association. Tramps applying after dark, or at any time at private houses for money or food, may be referred to the police stations, where the tickets of the Association are furnished meals and lodgings, if the applicant prove or is apparently deserving. The citizen is thus relieved from

any misgiving as to this class of persons, and can dispose of their case at once by the delivery of an investigation ticket or reference to the offices of the Association, with the perfect assurance that the applicant will be properly cared for. The Labor Bureau has proved a great success, and its facilities extended to dependent strangers have proved a blessing to many deserving and honest persons desiring to maintain themselves by their own exertions. Numberless instances can be mentioned of individuals and families rescued from pauperism through its beneficent work. It is quite impossible to give even a synopsis of the results of the purely benevolent work of the Association. Generally speaking, it has been gratifying and more than usually successful.

The great changes effected in Detroit during the few years in which the Association of Charities has been in existence, have been appreciated by the public, who have not been wanting in substantial and liberal support. It is hardly necessary to say to the gentlemen assembled here that the working of our Association and as they well know of all others of a similar kind, has been at the cost of much, very much valuable time and attention contributed by business and professional gentlemen to this work.

The most formidable obstacle met with in our experience is the difficulty of securing the right kind of material for district committees and for the proper accomplishment of district work, and this is a very serious matter affecting a most vital and necessary feature in the proper and conscientious accomplishment of the objects of the Association. Another obstacle met with is the unreal nature of the co-operation of charitable and religious associations nominally extended, but too often of little use for the purpose intended, and it is to be regretted that petty jealousy has much to do in thwarting the noble and unsectarian efforts dictated by charity for the welfare of the needy and distressed.

Mr. Barbour, of Detroit: To commence where the Secretary left off, I will say that our Association was reorganized and took up the work, and we have done about the same work as the organization which he mentions, except on a smaller scale. We have met the same

difficulty that you have heard described of want of sufficient earnest workers to do the work. We have not that hearty co-operation from the people that the work deserves, and we have had the very heart opposition of the politicians, but that is simply history repeating itself of each Charity organization. We have this to encourage us: that the theory of Charity organization is extending itself throughout the whole country, and the politician who now and henceforth opposes or is lukewarm in this matter, will find that he has contended against those things which are seen by the people, who see the good that will be done, and that he will meet such an opposition if he still stands against the measures as will overwhelm him.

We have started a penny bank this year to which the people bring their saving of the summer. We have allowed them interest on it, and in winter they can draw it for coal. This will encourage them to save. We have received more benefit I think from our employment bureau than anything else. To it people apply for positions, and such as are deserving are helped to employment. We have no wood-yard because we did not think it was best to try to do too much at once. We have only this system of relief. We provide a little ticket which can be had at the Central Office. Any person who applies for a night's lodging can obtain a ticket which will give them a lodging and a ten cent meal. This ticket is required to be stamped at the Central Police Station, and if the sergeant of police does not know the person presenting it to be unworthy, the ticket is honored at a hotel where arrangements have been made for that purpose.

Bishop Robertson, of Missouri: I have not heard certain things, in regard to the working of these societies, that I would like to know. You have a head inspector and then you have district inspectors. I suppose these

inspectors are employed in some other work. Then, too, I want to know the amount of salary paid?

MR. MCCULLOCH: To answer that would be to give the whole thing over again. In Indianapolis, a city of 90,000 there is a central office with a Register and a paid superintendent whose whole time is devoted to the work. He gets $60 a month. There are three paid visitors at $30 a month each and there are one or two more employes at $30 a month. Then there are a great many others who help the Society along.

BISHOP ROBERTSON: Their labor is gratuitous?

MR. MCCULLOCH: Yes, sir.

MR. SANBORN: What is the yearly expenditure?

MR. MCCULLOCH: About three thousand dollars — twenty-five hundred dollars.

MR. SANBORN: In Boston, where we have 40,000 people, twelve thousand dollars will carry on the Associated Charities.

MR. PUTNAM, of Boston: We would like to hear expressions from all the different societies and then fill in the missing links so as to get the plan that would be most practicable and best. There are some one hundred and fifty societies in Boston who do various kinds of work. Many of them do not give relief directly but in various ways assist the poor. Some only give clothing, others meals. Our object is to combine them all and make a complete charitable organization. They should all know what each one is doing in the way of assisting the poor. Very often two or three societies are assisting the same family. The only way in which these societies can work with each other harmoniously is to have one large organization with a Register and all the doings of the relief societies recorded and made known to each other. The system with us is this: We have books or cards and the relief that is given is put on them and a record made by families as well as societies. Then, too,

we have voluntary visitors who are constantly calling upon persons who are receiving aid. There have been cases in our city where a family has been receiving aid and was not deserving of it for three or four years and the fact was never discovered until they came under the deep reaching investigations of the voluntary visitors. These visitors are each assigned to certain families and keep watch over them. We have six hundred of these visitors and three hundred other members. who are members of societies, who visit more or less.

The President here suspended the discussion of the regular order, and introduced Senator VANCE of North Carolina, who spoke as follows:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: A week or two since I came to this city with an invalid member of my family, and since my arrival here I received a commission from the Governor of North Carolina appointing me a delegate to this honorable body, and requesting me to represent the State of North Carolina. The necessity of my attendance elsewhere, in consequence of the illness to which I have alluded, prevented me from being with you yesterday, and will, I am sorry to say, prevent my regular attendance upon the deliberations of this body. It was with difficulty I got the opportunity to come up for a few moments this afternoon; but I was determined to come frequently enough at least, if not to participate in the active and noble work of your convention, to show to you the interest which the people of North Carolina feel in your deliberations and in your work. And I assure you that they do feel a great interest in everything that tends to alleviate misery and promote human happiness. While I am not prepared to give any details or statistics concerning the work in the State in which I live, I will say — as an evidence of the great interest which North Carolina feels in this amelioration of human misery — that when the war closed we were in a state

of great poverty and distress. You may imagine the condition of the State of North Carolina, which was not different from that of most of the unfortunate states of the south. We had one small institution for the deaf and dumb. We had one institution for lunatics. That I believe was the extent of our charities. Since that time we have found means to build an institution for the deaf, dumb and blind of the colored race. We have found means to build one of the handsomest institutions of the kind in the United States for the insane of the colored race. We have found means to build an additional institution after the most approved methods and plans, costing near a half million dollars, for the accommodation of the white insane; so that we now have two institutions for each race in the State of North Carolina. And our private charities, whilst not of such an organized character as to be brought to public attention, have kept pace with our public charities. The noblest of our private charities is the Masonic Orphan Asylum at Oxford, which has educated and given homes to many children. Our efforts in the direction of public charities have been small as compared with those of other States more prosperous than ours, yet, considering the amount of our means, we are not ashamed to compare our institutions with those of any other people in the United States, and we hope to do better.

With reference to the reformation of criminals, I am able to say very little. I have had no experience, except as Governor of the state, in the conduct of the penitentiary. Our law of punishment in North Carolina if a man stole was to give him forty stripes save one. If a man committed murder we hung him. We have no charity for wrong-doers. We have no charity for a man that takes the life of a fellow creature. As bad a reputation as the south has, in North Carolina we have the old fashioned

prejudice against the man who raises his hand against his neighbor.

The penitentiary system was adopted at the close of the war, and, in one sense of the word, it has been a success; because it has been filled to overflowing ever since. It got so full that they had to get rid of some of them by putting them out on the public works, railroads, etc. We have found that by retaining control of them into whatsoever work they went, and taking care of them and never losing control over them, that they have been made useful to the state. Those who were thus put out and watched by the state have had better health than those confined within the walls of the penitentiary. That is our exprience. I have heard complaints from other states, but there is no just ground of complaint in North Carolina.

That is all that I can give to the convention. My own efforts, as those who know me are probably aware, have been to the punishment of murder and criminals of all classes. I am pleased to meet with a body of men and women who are laboring not for self advancement or glory or position, but for the advancement of our race and the amelioration of the condition of mankind. I am happy to know that the governor of my state thought that I could do something towards that great work. I am pleased that this honorable body thought me worthy to be called to this stand to say the few words to you that I have in behalf of this great cause. God bless you, ladies and gentlemen, in the great work which you have undertaken to do; and I regret exceedingly that I will not be able to be with you through your whole session. I thank you for your kidnness.

REPORT OF DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

BY MRS. SARA A. SPENCER.

Since the organization of the Associated Charities of the District of Columbia, in June, 1881, the work has been quietly, steadily moving forward, conducted entirely by resident citizens of the national capitol, neither aided nor impeded by Congressional legislation.

ENCOURAGEMENTS.

Among the many encouraging features of the work, may be named the following:

1. Rapid organization of thirteen out of eighteen subdivisions, covering all except the rural portions of the district.

2. Prompt and freely expressed approval of the system and practical workings of our society, by the leading business and professional men of the city.

Mr. George W. Adams, President of the Evening Star Publishing Company and President of the Fifth Subdivision of Associated Charities, said at a public meeting in Spencerian College parlors, January 17th, 1883: "A society which eliminates good from evil, which relieves actual suffering, prevents imposition, promotes thrift and economy and industry, promotes friendly co-operation among citizens and neighbors, deserves and must eventually receive the confidence and co-operation of all right-minded citizens. This Association has so far succeeded in five of its aims — has failed in only one — notably in securing the co-operation of the vast number of churches and benevolent societies of this district, through memberships and through comparisons of registration lists. The truth is these churches and societies do not keep registration books that can be shown and compared; thus the chief means of detecting imposture cannot be obtained."

Edwin M. Gallaudet, L.L.D., Ph. D., President of the National Deaf Mute College, on the same occasion said: "I desire to pledge to this work my friendly co-operation. This Association is about to solve one of the most important problems of this age. Its philosophy touches the well being of the highest, the lowest, the average citizen. The more it is allowed to work out, the more grand and beautiful will it become. I regard it as one of the most hopeful movements in the history of

civilization. It grows daily upon the public confidence. It will go forward to completeness. It has within it the elements of a perfect state of society.

3. General recognition among families, as far as it is understood, of the pivotal idea of our Society, of providing industry for all able-bodied applicants for aid, rather than alms.

4. An increasing feeling of self-respecting independence among our citizens themselves who are engaged in this work; a consciousness of ability to protect themselves and their families from national tramps, paupers and criminals hitherto regarded as hopeless debris of our great floating population.

5. A mutual acquaintance and helpfulness among people engaged in widely different forms of benevolent work; a striking of friendly hands to form a cordon of strength around the weak and ignorant and neglected.

6. The co-operation of the District Commissioners, the Metropolitan Police, and the general officers of the district government.

7. A general hopefulness, before unknown, concerning the future of the now dependent and dangerous classes: a perception of the dawn of a new day of brotherhood among men.

DIFFICULTIES.

Some of the obstacles we encounter are entirely national, and require a moral revolution throughout the country, for their removal; others are common to all cities engaged in reforms. Chief among the first class may be enumerated:

1. Entire legislative jurisdiction over this District by the Congress which, during eighty-three years, though besought with eloquence, logic, prayers and tears, has not found the time nor inclination to provide for this District a tramp law, a law to protect children from cruelty, a girl's reform school, a prison for women, an inebriate asylum, a blind asylum, a school for imbecile and pauper children, and other needed legislation demanded by public sentiment here and in every enlightened community.

All of these ship-wrecked classes are forever on our streets. Anywhere in this country, except in the capital of the United States, the citizens could prevail upon their local government to provide for them suitable shelter and care. (As an illustration of present District laws, the penalty for the seduction of a young girl is a few pounds of tobacco, to be awarded to her father to compensate him for care during her illness.)

We continue to present to you these national difficulties, because they are always with us, we are unable to cope with them, and a word from this National Conference of Charities and Corrections to the Congress, would be to each member of that body, a voice from his constituents.

2. The enthusiastic and absorbing devotion of many excellent people in churches and charitable institutions and organizations, to the special forms of benevolence in which they are engaged; their unwillingness to admit their liability to imposition or mistaken charity, or any need whatever for the existence of our organization, which they consider in some manner designed to supplant their efforts.

3. Exactly the opposite difficulty from other churches, institutions and organizations who freely turn over to us for permanent care, their especially obnoxious cases, and habitually direct those needing temporary assistance to the Associated Charities. This class (No. 3) is more difficult to deal with than No. 2, because they are perfectly satisfied with their superficial view of our mission, and insist that if we do not "take care of people" we are "of no use," and "had better dissolve."

4. The great floating population from the well-to-do classes of every land under the sun, who scatter coins and clothing among vagrants, with lavish hand, undoing our hard labors, and leaving beggars fat, impudent and lazy, for us to reform.

5. Lack of manufacturing establishments to furnish employment to the great number of men and women (chiefly disappointed office-seekers), who will not leave Washington, are not strong enough for domestic service or other hard labor, but could support themselves and families and benefit the community at lighter employment. Enterprising young capitalists do not locate in Washington. When they retire from business and want a beautiful home, or an honorable appointment they come to rest, or to operate political wires.

WORK OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

Owing to the difficulties above enumerated, the work of the District of Columbia Associated Charities has not been so exclusively devoted to organization of existing charities and to examination and registration, as in other cities. We have been compelled to administer temporary relief, by degrees winning the good will and intelligent comprehension of existing charities, so that the number relieved by us greatly diminishes as the months

roll on. In some subdivisions this has ceased entirely, and only employment is provided, applicants for other forms of relief being appropriately referred. The fourth and sixth subdivisions have united to establish a Foster Home, Day Nursery and Kindergarten for the care of the children of working women. The fifth subdivision has established a Woman's Work Department, for the manufacture of clothing and domestic articles, and all of the thirteen organized subdivisions have appointed friendly visitors, opened registration offices and commenced the educational work of investigating causes of poverty, helplessness and vagrancy.

It was ascertained that many who asked for employment the first year, have since that time had permanent work, the interest of citizens in this matter having been awakened. It was also learned that many were already employed, but were chronic malcontents, always desiring change; whereupon the fifth subdivision declined to assist anyone in obtaining household service who had never remained in a good place a year or more.

CO-OPERATION OF EXISTING CHARITIES.

It is the desire and recommendation of the District Commissioners that all of the public and private charities of the District shall adopt the plans and methods of investigation, registration and industry in use in the subdivisions of the Associated Charities, and that they shall co-operate with our Society in every possible manner.

The recent publication by our general board of managers of a chart of District Charities, has done much to instruct each of the charities concerning the work of the others, and to bring them into intelligent harmony with our Society. Many kind messages accompanied the information they gave us.

All essential facts concerning the government, district and private institutions and organizations may be gathered from this chart, a copy of which will be sent to anyone who may desire it, upon application.

By Mr. Dawes, of Milwaukee: The Associated Charities of Milwaukee is of very recent growth. Since the last annual meeting there has been a very creditable advance. Among the most important things, perhaps, that I can call your attention to, among others, has been the organization of District Conferences. The city has

been subdivided and committees of visitation and labor have been appointed in each district. They are in successful working order at this time and have been for months in most of the districts, and in others not so long. Another thing has been the appointment and setting to work of a paid agent, who devotes his whole time to investigating cases that needs that sort of thing. Several benevolent schemes have been started, but a several months' absence from the state and a recent return to it, has not allowed me to keep specifically posted, and I cannot give the details. But I can assure you that associated charities are growing in favor with the people of our state. It is difficult to make them understand what the nature of associated charity is. They associate charity with the idea of Alms Houses, and old clothes, etc. The most important work we have done was in the direction of stopping giving to the same persons from many sources. We have found in the city of Mil waukee that the same persons have been receiving aid from many different sources, when in many cases they were not entitled to aid at all. We have used such methods of stopping this as have been described by the gentlemen in this meeting. We have that same system of cards and it has resulted in a great saving in the amount of relief given out.

REPORT OF THE PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY.

BY DR. J. W. WALK.

Part (1). "A brief statement of the work of our Society, the progress made in it thus far, the discouragements and difficulties encountered, the means employed to overcome them and the outlook for the future."

The city of Philadelphia is coterminous with the county of the same name. It includes one hundred and thirty (130) square miles of territory, and has a population of upwards of nine hundred thousand (900,000).

There are within its boundaries several hundred charitable societies and institutions. During the decade

from 1870 to 1880, pauperism rapidly increased, and the magnitude of the evil, at last, awakened public attention, and led to a great popular uprising for its abatement. The Charity Organization Society was formed in the summer of 1878, and has thus been in existence five (5) years. Its objects were declared to be:

1. To reduce vagrancy and pauperism, and ascertain their true causes.
2. To prevent indiscriminate and duplicate giving.
3. To secure the community from imposture.
4. To see that all deserving cases of destitution are properly relieved.
5. To make employment the basis of relief.
6. To elevate the home-life, health and habits of the poor.
7. To prevent children from growing up as paupers.

By bringing about co-operation among all Charitable agencies.

By a system of registration to prevent imposture.

By securing thorough investigation and the most suitable action in all cases.

By obtaining from existing charities the precise help needed; or,

By giving relief when immediate help is needed, and when all other sources fail.

By a system of visiting which shall substitute friendliness for alms, and inspire to thrift, self-respect, and better modes of life.

By careful study of the causes of pauperism, and of the best methods of dealing with destitution and degradation.

Its work was inaugurated in the central wards, and has since been extended so as to cover the entire city. The Society now has a central office and twenty-three (23) district offices. The working plan is as follows:

(1.) Districts. Each district comprises a ward (or, when the wards are small, two), has an office within its boundaries, and is under the direction of a local board of directors, usually numbering twelve (12), composed of ladies and gentlemen resident within the district, and chosen annually by the members of the Society residing in the district. They elect a Superintendent, who receives a salary from the central treasury of the Society, which is, however, in many cases supplemented by payments from the treasury of the district board. His duties are, in general, to investigate and report for decision, to a committee of the district board, all applications for relief. He is assisted by a corps of volunteer visitors,

chiefly ladies, whose province is to maintain by frequent friendly visitations, such relations with the applicants as will tend toward their physical, moral and social elevation. A full registration of all cases dealt with is kept in each district office and duplicated to the central office of the society. As directors, visitors and superintendents, upwards of one thousand persons have during the past year been engaged in the work of the district associations.

(2.) CENTRAL. The general direction of the affairs of the Society is in the hands of a board of twenty one (21) directors, chosen by the members at an annual meeting in November. They provide funds for carrying on the operations of the Society, decide on the policy it shall pursue and take care that its administration in all its branches is in conformity with the principles of organized charity. At the central office are kept in a convenient form, sets of reports from all the charitable and correctional institutions of the city, and the officials there employed are well informed as to the provisions, legal and charitable, which exist for the relief of all kinds of distress. Here, also, are the duplicate reports upon all cases dealt with by the local offices, and such as are reported by co-operating societies. These records which are very voluminous, are carefully indexed both by names and residences, and are accessible to our own officials, to all charitable societies, and to those municipal officers concerned in the care of the dependent classes.

The district superintendents constantly resort here for information and instruction, and once each month throughout the year, all district superintendents meet at the central office for comparison of experiences, and the discussion of practical questions related to their work.

The lady visitors have, also, a monthly conference for a similar purpose.

In addition to this there is on the first Monday of each month a general meeting called the Assembly, composed of workers in all fields of charitable effort. This body has a large number of committees, each engaged in the study of some special branch of charity.

These committees successively present reports to the Assembly, where all propositions and theories are subjected to thorough discussion and close criticism.

By this means public interest is kept up, the discoveries of each become the property of all, the futility of impracticable schemes is demonstrated, without a resort to the more costly test of the experiment, while really valuable propositions, in the direction of the reform, having

encountered intelligent criticism, are accepted and made the basis of action.

The Monthly Register, the organ of charity organization in the United States, is issued from the Central Office.

The discouragement and difficulties encountered have been such, as would be expected, in the prosecution of a reform so radical as that proposed by the society. During the earlier years of our work, we were embarrassed by the lack of adequate financial support. With a more general understanding of our aims and methods this difficulty has wholly disappeared and the means contributed are now ample. Many of the old charitable societies at first looked upon the movement with distrust, and declined to avail themselves of the facilities for co-operation, which we freely proffered. Much of this distrust has passed away and several societies now co-operate to the fullest extent; but the general systematic co-operation which we desire, has not yet been attained. Most of the old benevolent societies cordially assist us when appealed to for the kind of aid they can give to distressed families or individuals; but they do not use our facilities for investigation, nor do they give us regular returns of their cases, so as to prevent overlapping.

They are more willing to help us than that we should help them. This, we believe, is not due to any hostility on their part, but because they are unwilling to incur the increased trouble and administrative expense entailed by a duplication of their registration.

The managers of the oldest general relief society in the city allow us to copy their records of all cases dealt with, provided we pay the cost of transcribing. In regard to the churches, we find them, generally, quite willing to give us what information they possess; but very few congregations keep such records of their benevolent work as are indispensable to a thorough system of registration. The majority of clergymen and other church almoners continue to judge of the character of applicants for their bounty without consulting us.

Since the organization of the Society, municipal outdoor poor relief has been abolished, effecting a saving of over fifty thousand dollars ($50,000) annually. The number of inmates in the Almshouse and House of Correction has diminished, and the amount of street begging has been greatly reduced. We look upon the future with hopeful confidence, and believe that by disseminating to the people in sermons and lectures, and through the press, the doctrines of enlightened charity, and most of

all, by faithful labor for the elevation of the poor with whom we come in contact, it will be possible, in coming years, to prevent the further increase of pauperism, and to restore very many of those now suffering from its evils, to a position of self-respect and independence.

MR. GILES: I would like to ask you how you raise your money.

Dr. WALK: We have gotten it honestly. It has devolved upon a few gentlemen to a great extent. Dr. Charles Cadwalader has been mainly instrumental in raising the money.

MR. SANBORN: I would like to know how much you consider it necessary to work the organization?

DR. WALK: The paying of the superintendent and the working machinery at the central office will cost about $15,000. The District Associations expend ten or fifteen thousand more.

MR. HALEY, of Kansas City: The last speaker referred to the fact that he found difficulty in getting the desired register from the churches. I would like to ask the gentleman what kind of registration the Charity Association would desire. It might help the Pastors in this convention to furnish such information. And again, what proportion of the applicants for help are deserving and what not?

DR. WALK: To answer the first question last, a great many are and a great many are not. As to what we want from the churches: We do not wish from the churches any information as to the people who are their own people in the church. That relation is so sacred and so entirely confidential that we do not ask for that. If they are helping widows and orphans, or poor people in their congregations, that is all right. We do not ask about that. But in every church in Philadelphia there are hangers on to the church for what may be gotten out of it in a pecuniary sense, and we would like to

know the names and adresses of these people and what the church is giving these people.

MR. BARBOUR: In Detroit we adopted the means of membership to raise our finances. We let every one become a member by paying $5.00, and thus raised a very large amount to relieve the poor and needy.

MR. FAIRCHILD, of New York: I have no prepared report because I did not expect to say anything in behalf of the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York when I came here. I hoped that a complete report sent by the Secretary would be read. I also hoped that Mr. Pellew would be here on behalf of that organization. In the absence of Mr. Pellew I am glad to say a few words.

Our society is comparatively a new one, only having been organized a year ago last spring. It was organized differently from what most of them are. That is, our State Board of Charity, having found that the increase of charitable expenditures in the city of New York had become so great as to be alarming, passed a resolution requesting that three members of that Board who resided in the city of New York should undertake to organize a Charity Organization Society for that city. In consequence of that resolution these members of the State Board invited certain men to prepare a constitution. I had the honor to be one of those who were asked to do this. We prepared that and handed it back to these members of the State Board. They made a few changes in it, such as they thought proper, and then they invited a number of men to be the first General Council of that society, and that council proceeded to elect the members of the society. Then the next year we had an election by the members of the society and they elected the council. So that it was organized entirely the reverse of what it has been any where else, but the only way it could be done in the city of New York.

Since then we have advanced rapidly in some respects and slower in others. We have met no opposition whatever, but the most entire cordiality on the part of all the Societies. We have a system of Registration copied from the Boston system by cards. I think they show some fifty thousand from the Societies which report to us, including the Penitentiary and the Work House, which also report so us.

We have not organized the city entirely yet into districts. We have organized the upper portion into five districts. In regard to the finances we have adopted a little different system from that practiced in other cities. The Central Council collects all the money. The district committees have nothing to do with money whatever. If any happens to be given to them they turn it over at once to the Central Council. The Central Council pays all the expenses, the salaries, rent, etc., of the district committees. We thought this was necessary in New York in order to secure unity of action.

We have had the same difficulty that has been spoken of in other cities as to registration. It has been difficult to get the churches to report to us in the manner we desired because the churches have not been in the habit of keeping such a record as we would desire. They have thus had to revise their system. That has been one embarrassment that perhaps is greater in New York than elsewhere. However it is gradually growing better and I think it will soon be much better.

I think the Charity Organization Society of New York has justified its existence. We are disposed to be modest as yet. We ought to be. It is a task which, the more you look at it, the more appalling it becomes. We have an enormous changing population. We have an enormous immigration, and our task is perhaps greater than in any other city of the country. We have the vast tenement houses with numerous families residing in

them, so that it is almost impossible to keep track of them. We have found in many cases where the same families were receiving aid from a good many sources, and I am fully satisfied that the work of the Society has paid for itself.

One case that I remember was that of a widow. She applied for help and when asked about her family replied that she had one son, but that he had gone away. We turned to our register and found that the boy was in the Penitentiary. We went to the man for whom the boy had worked and found that the boy was not a bad boy, but that he had gotten into some trouble and was sent to the Penitentiary. We prevailed upon that employer to promise to take the boy back if we procured his release. This he did and the boy was freed and taken back to him. That boy at the last accounts, was with his employer doing well, and was saved from probably an evil life and the family saved from pauperism.

GEN. TAYLOR: Sometime last summer I received a letter from the Charities Commissioners of New York, asking information in regard to the number of tramps that were in town, and also certain other questions in regard to my opinion about the best way of treating these tramps, whether they should be made to work, and asking if we put them to work. I do not remember whether I answered that letter or not. I would like to know if there are any of those gentlemen here, and if they came to any conclusion in regard to the best way of treating tramps?

MR. FAIRCHILD: That communication came from the Committee on Dealing with Able Bodied Paupers, of the State Charity Aid Association of which I am President. They were making these investigations with reference to lodging tramps in Police Stations night after night. They wrote to all the principal cities of the country for the purpose of gathering statistics and the opinions of

people whom they thought knew about it. I think the conclusion they came to was that something like the Boston Lodging House would be the best thing possible, and I believe we will have three or four such places in New York City this winter.

The Conference then took a recess until evening.

FOURTH SESSION.

TUESDAY EVENING, September 25, 1884

The Report from the State of Indiana was made by Rev. A. Bessonies as follows:

FATHER BESSONIES, of Indianapolis: There have been many changes in our State recently and the changes have been for the better. We stand much better than we did a year ago. Our Institutions for Blind and Deaf and Dumb are all that can be desired. In the last report our Asylum for the Insane was deficient.

It was well kept, but there was not room enough. We have now two very large Asylums for the Insane at Indianapolis very well kept, and by the finishing of the new one a great number can be accomodated. Beside these the state of Indiana has gone further. As we had a great many insane people that could not be kept, because they could not be cared for, they had to be sent to the different poor houses.

Last winter our Legislature made arrangements to build three more besides the ones we have at Indianapolis, and there is now one at Evansville, one at Richmond, and one at Logansport.

Thus we will have five well equipped asylums for the insane which will accommodate all our insane if we do not get crazy too fast. As to prisons, we have two prisons, one at Michigan City and one across the river, at Jeffersonville. These two state institutions, the prison north and the prison south, are self-supporting,

The one at Michigan City is more than self-supporting, but the one at Jeffersonville is not quite so; however, taken together they are self-supporting. We have an institution at Indianapolis called the Female Reformatory or Female Prison, but of course this is not self-sup-

porting, but is an expense to the state. Still they are doing an enormous amount of work for the state, washing and sewing.

I was thunderstruck the other day when I saw in the report of a gentleman from Ohio, that the prisons in this state cost two millions. I am sure that in Indiana we have as good if not better prisons, and do not pay one-tenth the price. We have a Reform School for Boys at Plainfield. This is really a model institution. It is not self-supporting by any means, nor can it be expected. It is kept on the family system. They have different houses, and in each house there is a family that takes care of a certain number of boys, say fifty or sixty. During the day they make them work. There is a great improvement on the previous time. Formerly they were making chairs only and now they are being taught many useful trades. This season they have turned out from that institution sixteen first-class brick layers.

They are all made to work constantly. If you keep boys there and do not make them work they become lazy and worthless, and it is only a step from the Reform School to the Penitentiary. But make them work all the time; keep them occupied and you can turn them out good and useful citizens.

I have an objection to the institution, but it is not the fault of the institution, but of the legislature. I find in that institution boys six, seven and eight years of age, and from that up to twenty. These little boys should not be sent there. There should be a separate asylum for them. The law allows them to go there at eight, but they take them at six or seven. I do not think they should be allowed to go there at least until they are ten years old. We have an institution for the poor at Indianapolis. The poor are taken care of there at a small expense. The poor are given tickets, no money, so that they cannot get whisky, and they are given a

supper and a clean bed at the Friendly Inn, and in the morning they are made to work to pay for it, and for the extra work they get a small amount of money.

We have scarcely any beggars in Indianapolis. It is often said that in our church (the Catholic) we send our poor all over the country and that nearly all the Irish want charity. At Indianapolis, at the Little Sisters of the Poor, there are seventy-seven old people kept free of charge. If they were not kept there they would be in the County Poor Houses; so we save the county that expense. In the House of the Good Shepherd we have forty-five or forty-six girls, who, if they were not there, would be in the city and disgrace themselves in the city. They are kept there and made to work and support themselves. We have besides that an Orphan Asylum for boys and one for girls, with as many as one hundred and fifty inmates in each. We take care of them for nine thousand dollars, and if the state had them, it would cost thirty. So, instead of being a charge to the state, our church is really a relief. You will pardon these extempore remarks. If I have ever again a chance and the honor to address you, I will have a written report that will prove more satisfactory.

REPORT FOR MISSOURI.

BY BISHOP C. F. ROBERTSON.

In this state there is no general Board of Charities; therefore it will not be possible to give the condition of the penal and charitable work in the counties of the state; moreover the facts are not accessible by which any accurate statement could be made, as to the work of a similar character, done by religious and other voluntary effort. This report will cover, therefore, the details of the institutions under the control of the state and those in St. Louis.

There was an effort made during the session of the legislature last winter, to induce the passage of an act creating a State Board of Charities and Corrections, and a letter was prepared by the undersigned, of which a

copy is appended to this report. This was sent to many members of the legislature. The Governor expressed himself as in favor of the measure. Unfortunately, however, the measure was a new, and for them, an untried one, and the matter was laid aside.

Under an act, however, passed in 1881, a special committee of the General Assembly, appointed by the Governor, having qualified for the purpose, visited all the institutions in the state except those at the seat of government. The time within which they had to perform this duty was only twenty-four days, including Sundays and holidays, and as their duty required them as well to visit the State University and the several Normal Schools, and as the institutions were scattered over the state at hundreds of miles distance from each other, it can readily be inferred that the examination had to be hasty and superficial. It is evident from their report that the committee strove to perform their duty honestly and as thoroughly as possible. It is, however, quite as evident that if the policy of depending upon a special committee to report the condition of the institutions and to recommend measures for the action of the legislature is to be retained, very much more time will have to be allowed for the examination, if it is to be complete and satisfactory.

Such a report assumes to be supplementary to the report of the local boards of management, and of the nature of that of an auditing body. Its members are not necessarily experts in the greatly diversified purposes had in view by the institutions that they visit. Directly they begin their examination of the accounts, in the brief time at their disposal, they are perplexed at the different systems according to which returns are made, and the difficulty of deciding what expenditures are to be credited to the permanent improvement of the property and what to current expenses. This committee complains of this, as any similar committee would need to do. Moreover as the same committee would only visit the institutions once, and the visits would be at long intervals, and at a time known long beforehand, they could not be satisfactory.

The undersigned will not repeat the considerations which lead him to think that this mode of procedure can not be made as thorough and reliable as that which the experience of most of the larger states has found necessary, the creation of a State Board whose duty it will be to visit and examine frequently the institutions on which the state is called upon to expend so much money, to

secure reports made in a uniform manner, and on these make recommendations for appropriations and action. Certainly in no other way can any information be had about the county administration of charity, with regard to which in the state some disquieting public statements have been recently made.

The committee strongly presented the fact that the lunatic asylums of the state, of which there are three, two under the control of the state, and one in the city of St. Louis, were greatly overcrowded, and that of the 3,454 insane persons in the state, 2,300 were outside the asylums, of which the larger part were at their homes, and about 25 per cent. were in the county poor houses and jails. They deplored the overcrowding of the asylums, as it interfered with comfort and decency, and retarded the process of cure. They especially regretted the inadequacy of the accommodations, as inducing delay in placing the afflicted in the asylums, and thus, as is well known, greatly reducing the chances for recovery. The state asylums, at the time of the report, the first of this year, had in them 756 inmates, and the insane asylum in St. Louis had 398 patients. The cost of the patients at the state asylum was 33 cents a day, and at the St. Louis asylum 50 cents. The condition of the 543 insane persons in the almshouses of the state, knowing as we do the general condition of the poor farms with reference to the care of the insane, is one that must cause anxiety; and the overcrowded asylums are constantly throwing back upon the care of the county those who are pressed out by the application of the new comers, and for whom in the county there is no special provision.

There were in the institution for the Deaf and Dumb in Fulton during the two years covered by the last report 291 pupils, with 196 in the institution at the time of making the report. The appropriation made by the state for the two years was $90,000, a portion, of which the exact amount cannot be gathered from the report, went for permanent improvements.

In the Blind Asylum in St. Louis the number of pupils is about 100. Of the 520 inmates in the thirty-two years since its establishment there have been only two deaths, and neither of these within the past ten years. The appropriation for two years for general maintenance and salaries was $52,000.

The appropriations by the state for all of its institutions are ample, as conceded by those who are in charge of

them. What they ask from the General Assembly is given them.

In the State Penitentiary during the two years, of the 1,157 persons received, only 30 were women. At the end of the year there were 1,348 persons in prison, an increase of 120 since the date of the last report, two years before. The daily cost of maintenance and guarding was 33 2-15 cents. The contract system for labor within the prison is used, at the rate of 45 cents a day The appropriation for the pay roll for two years was $80,000, and the product of labor for this time exceeded the cost of actual maintenance $6,661.29. There were 41 deaths. The religious services for the prisoners are held in the dining room, which is utterly unadapted for the purpose. The salary of the chaplain is so small that he has to engage in other duty, and only give to the Penitentiary an inadequate portion of his time. Of this there has long been complaint.

In the city of St. Louis, with a population of 400,000, there were 2,879 prisoners received at the Work-house during the past year, of whom two-fifths were females. The men break stone and the women make brushes. The daily cost of keeping the prisoners is 40 cents.

The number received into the House of Refuge during the past year was 168, of whom one-fifth were girls. The daily average in the institution was 229. The boys make shoes and chairs. The outlay was about $36,000, and the earnings of the boys were over $5,000.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the state are the same as last year. There was good reason to hope that the General Assembly at its last session would have established a State Reform School, and perhaps also a State Inebriate Asylum. It may confidently be expected that at its next session it will establish one or both of these institutions. The reason why it did not do so last winter was on account of the large outlay involved in the repairs of the Penitentiary, nearly $200,000, from a fire which was willfully started by some prisoners. This induced a disposition tc economy for other purposes. There should be a Reform School for boys and another for girls, and a School or Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children, numbers of whom press upon the Deaf and Dumb School, but cannot there be treated to advantage.

Any statement of the charitable work done in the state would be incomplete without a reference — I can make nothing more — to the varied agencies that are under the control of religious organizations, and which

do so much for the amelioration of the condition of the different forms of human suffering and need. In St. Louis alone there are 33 asylums and orphanages, 17 hospitals, besides many other institutions of Christian charity, which dispense hundreds of thousands of dollars, freely and gladly contributed for their maintenance.

[Appendix to the above Report.]

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES IN MISSOURI.

The annual expenditure in this state for the maintenance of our institutions for the criminal, poor and defective classes reaches hundreds of thousands of dollars. Prudence would seem to require that in the administration of such vast sums there ought to be competent oversight to ascertain that there is an honest and economical use of the means spent, and at the same time to secure an intelligent understanding as to the correctional and humane ends to be had in view in the appropriation of the money.

Hundreds of thousands of dollars have been spent upon the buildings for the state institutions, for penitentiaries, asylums for the insane, blind, and deaf and dumb; and there is constant pressure for greater accommodation. Knowledge of a special character is required for the wise construction of each of these classes of buildings. Immense sums have been of late years squandered in a number of states in the erection of these structures. In one state an insane asylum has been built, ill-adapted for its purpose, on which, with a wastefulness common to public expenditures, $1,000 was spent for each patient that could be sheltered.

In order to secure a continuous, prudent and disinterested system of oversight in the administration of these vast sums of money, which the tax-payers of the state are yearly paying, the experience of a considerable number of our older states has led to the constitution of State Boards of Public Charities and Corrections. These exist in New York, Massachusetts, Ohio, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, Connecticut, Wisconsin and Kansas. These Boards have the power of inspection, collection of information and advice. In some of these states still larger responsibilities are entrusted to the Boards.

The Governor cannot supervise the working of these vast and complicated institutions, and insure economy and efficiency. The state departments cannot do more than formally audit the accounts. The periodical visit of a legislative committee is notoriously inefficient for bringing out all the facts and workings of the institutions. The distant members of special boards of trustees leave the management to local members, and they have local interests to serve. They cannot take in broad and disinterested views of the whole work in the state. Their recommendations are apt to be distrusted, and subjected to review.

A State Board of Charities, appointed by the Governor, from both political parties, of persons who had made, or were disposed to make, the administration of public charities a study, keeping themselves informed by constant and wide inquiries and observations as to the best methods of working, serving without salaries, inspecting the institutions, and empowered to call for exact information, helping those officers who are disposed to do their duty by suggestions which come from a wider experience; checking indolence and cruelty and extravagance and parsimony by the apprehension that these will all be brought to the light; such an agency as this in the state would give a

better and wiser direction to the use of the money which we now spend, and would enable us to profit by any of the suggestions as to better management being brought out in the older communities.

Such a system would induce a stricter accounting for, and better disbursements of all public moneys for specified objects of charity and correction. It would save us from all efforts after popularity by the exercise of a parsimony destructive of the objects for which the institutions are maintained. It would secure exact reports by a uniform system of inquiries as to the results being accomplished. It would bring out itemized estimates from those who were competent and disinterested, for the legislative committee of appropriations to act on. In Illinois for several years past the legislature has not varied one dollar from the estimates prepared by the Board of Charities. In that state since the present system went into operation, the *per capita* cost of maintaining inmates of the State institutions has fallen from $330 per year to a little over $200, with as great comfort and care of the inmates as ever before. Such a body also would be the intermediary between the legislature and the institutions, to prevent on the one hand unfounded and senseless charges of abuse from being started, and on the other hand bringing to bear upon the superintendents and other officers of the institutions a continuous sense of what it is that they are expected to do.

The care of the defective, dependent and criminal classes of the population is a business. It has to be learned like any other business. Notoriously the money expended in this State goes largely, as the case now stands, to educate more criminals, to depress the moral tone of those who have been arrested for slight offenses, and to pauperize the dependent. To many the highest political wisdom is to reduce the appropriations, and make the prisons self-supporting. There is but little thought of the aim that should be kept in mind, as determining whether there is waste or economy — to induce the abandonment of criminal practices by those who are every month leaving the prisons, to make as useful as possible those of defective powers, and to help the helpless to help themselves. In this State we have done little in this direction. In New York, Wisconsin, and in some other States the State Boards have brought to bear on this matter methods of discipline which have had very happy results.

Our administration of county farms and poor-houses through this state, as in other states is a shame. The most pinching nigardliness is shown in the allowances. The keepers often do the best they can for the money. No one through the county knows or wants to know what the condition of things is. All the varied classes are gathered in a small, mean building; men and women, old and young; the paralytic and the epileptic. Our State institutions for the insane are not large enough to take care of all of that class in the state, and so all the while numbers of hopelessly insane persons are being remanded to the counties from which they have come. There is no proper provision on the poor-farm or in the county house for their care. Some have mania and some melancholia. Here is another complication for the poor officer. The squalor and bestiality in some county institutions is incredible. This would not be endured if we had a State Board that would both bring these enormities to the light, and also would help the county courts to see how a better condition of things could be induced.

Experience has shown that for certain of the defective and criminal classes special modes of construction of buildings is absolutely necessary to make efficient and to economize the labor of assistants, and to secure remedial results. Some thoroughly known principles in the building and arrangement of hospitals, insane asylums and

prisons have been settled, and largely by comparison of views of those who have made the care of these classes a study. But this is little appreciated by contractors when a legislative appropriation is made; and we go on repeating the mistakes and failing of improvements which we should have known all about.

The coördination and distribution of our appropriations and efforts in the state for a system of penal and reformatory institutions requires the study and oversight of a body which shall keep the whole field of work in view, and can intelligently advise as to the need and scope of reformatories for boys and for girls, and perhaps for special prison arrangements for female convicts, and the direction and extent to which an enlargement of our facilities should go.

In the older States the time has passed for arguing as to the need of such State Boards. Their usefulness has been demonstrated. The question has rather been as to the extent of the powers to be entrusted to them. The writer inclines to the belief that with us they should be visitorial and advisory, rather than executive. With a Board, non-political in its character, and serving, except as to its secretary, without compensation, the following might, briefly, be among the functions that it could usefully exercise:

1st. To visit and inspect all institutions within the State, both those which receive State aid and also all county and town prisons and almshouses, and make report to the Governor and General Assembly of its observations and conclusions respecting them.

2nd. To prescribe the forms of records and accounts to be kept and of reports to be made by institutions controlled by the State; to pass upon the accuracy of the accounts submitted, and advise against the further payment of money to any institution whose accounts are not found in a satisfactory condition.

3rd. To make recommendations as it shall deem fit, or as it is called upon, as to the appropriations for ordinary or extraordinary expenditures for the support of State institutions; to make suggestions to the Governor and General Assembly respecting legislation either for the benefit of existing institutions, or for the extension of work for the dependent, defective and delinquent classes.

4th. To examine and give its opinion upon all architectural plans proposed for the erection or alteration of buildings occupied by State institutions.

5th. To conduct such statistical inquiries as may tend to throw light upon the numbers and condition of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes, upon the cost of their support and the causes which operate to incite or check their undue growth; and to recommend measures which have been thus found useful to reduce the tendencies to crime or pauperism.

6th. To investigate and report upon abuses and wrongs alleged to exist in any State or county institution.

The writer has no object other than a deep interest in the State, in which he has lived for many years, and with all parts of which he is intimately acquainted, to urge a measure, proved to be good in many older communities around us, and which, it is believed, will as well render more useful the appropriations made for State purposes, as tend to a better administration of our efforts for the criminal, dependent and defective classes in the commonwealth.

C. F. ROBERTSON.

ST. LOUIS, February 18, 1883.

REV. J. W. BACHMAN, of Chattanooga, reported for the Associated Charities of Chattanooga, as follows:

It strikes me as a very significant fact that this work of organizing charities has pressed itself upon so many minds and hearts, in so many places, at or near the same time. In various cities in the east, west, north and south, this idea has forced itself upon the minds of good men and women. I was surprised to find this when I came here. In 1881 there was formed in the little town of Chattanooga, an institution known and chartered as the Associated Charities, twelve gentlemen getting together and giving of their means and promising to lay the matter before their friends, and procure a charter for the organization. This was done, and from that time until now we have been running along in pretty much the same way as all of these other organizations. We kept the plan of Massachusetts and Philadelphia and that in Ohio, just as much as we thought it was good for us.

In 1881, I was sent to the city of Cincinnati to look over its Associated Charities, its Reform Schools, its House of Refuge, and the Charities of that state, and since then we have been doing a great work from what we learned from them. We have made this the foundation of our work, that if a man won't work he shall not eat the bread of charity. We hunt them up, and every month, if we find a man or woman who will not work when employment is provided, they go usually to the chief of police.

I tried some time ago to get a wood-yard started, but they did not like to saw wood; when I would telephone down to the yard if such a man had come to saw wood they had not heard of him. There are some things that we have not yet done which will be in course of time. Last spring we prepared three bills, one for a Reform School for Boys and Girls, one for a Hospital, and one for a State Board of Charity, and put them before

the legislature. They passed the second reading, but never finally got through, but we hope at the next meeting of the legislature we will get them through.

The medical aid we have is very efficient. We have two or three first-class physicians who say to us, if you will pay for the medicine we will give you our services free. I am gratified to be with you in this meeting, and know that I shall learn many things that will be of the greatest benefit to us in our work.

CHAIRMAN: What has been the result of your work on pauperism?

MR. BACHMAN: That has been reduced very much. I will state here a fact that is not known to many of you. We have to deal down there with a class that you do not. I speak of the negro. It may astonish you when I say that a negro don't make a good pauper, and you cannot make a good orphan of him at all. A negro from six to eight years old is generally a self-supporting institution in his way.

We object to his way but still he is self supporting. Negroes are not paupers generally. I have lived amongst them all my life. I was raised with them. I know them. A negro down south just goes to his white people and says he wants fifty cents and he generally gets it.

CHAIRMAN: Is there no pauperism in the south?

MR. BACHMAN: It is growing. Before the war there was scarcely any pauperism, because of the relations that existed between the master and slave. The master took care of the slave because he belonged to him.

The subject of the evening had been announced to be an address upon Charity Organization in cities, by Rev. S. H. Gurteen, late of Buffalo, now of Chicago. In his absence the following addresses were arranged for by the committee in charge of the subject:

1. The Need of Charity Organization, by J. W. Walk, of Philadelphia.

2. The Principles Underlying it, by L. L. Barbour, of Detroit.

3. The Value of Registration and Investigation, by C. S. Fairchild, of New York.

4. The Work of District Committees, by Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis.

5. The General Results of it, by Philip C. Garrett, of Philadelphia.

These addresses were delivered as follows:

THE NEED OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY DR. J. W. WALK.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: At the request of the chair I shall endeavor to lay before you some reasons why there should be an organization of charities in the American States. If some one who should deny the beauty of light could be immured for a few hours in a dark and noisome cell, when he was released he would join with Milton, "Hail, holy Light, offspring of Heaven's first born." If one who denied the benefits of this Union could be compelled for a brief season to live in a country controlled by a grinding and unjust despotism I think when he returned to his native land he would no longer be unpatriotic enough to again affirm it. If the city of Louisville is to be encouraged to form a society for organized charity, I think there can be no better way to stimulate them, than to tell them the state of that place where there is no organized charity and then picture the state of those cities who have such an institution.

Take a primitive American community. Here is a little village surrounded by an almost unsettled country. Let us see how misfortune is dealt with here. Here is a man and his wife and three children. One day this man, chopping wood in the forest, is killed. The support of that family is cut off. He is brought home and buried. The wife then undertakes to support the three children. She is a delicate woman and breaks down. The neighbors talk about it at the blacksmith shop, at the grocery store and after church. They say, what are we going to do about that family. Finally some one

says, "they cannot keep together, I will take the woman into my family until she dies, which will not be long." The Doctor says "I will give my medicine." The girl gets a place to work in a mill and the boy who is big enough to work goes to live with a farmer; and the woman dies conscious that her children are provided for and there is every chance that those children will grow up as respectable as any one in the community.

But this does not work in the American cities. The conditions are different. You cannot pour new wine into old bottles. It is a city now filled with broad and beautiful streets. That little church has a long spire reaching towards heaven, and broad aisles and fine pews. What is the trouble? Why will not the old methods do? Because the rich and the poor are separated. They are far apart. Because the employer does not know the employe, and it is just simply impossible for that private individual benevolence to carry out its purposes, as it did in the primitive community. The same family exists in this city now. That man does not chop wood but works in a mill, but all the same he is killed. This time a beam falls on him or the fly wheel knocks him around, and the body is caried home, and the mill hands "chip in," as they say, and bury him. The wife is delicate, but undertakes to take care of and support the family. She fails. Now the neighbors come in; but who are the neighbors? Poor people, mill hands, street cleaners, laboring men getting the smallest kind of wages, laboring girls fighting starvation from day to day. Among the poor there is an ever present desire to help, but they have no means. They cannot do with half a meal themselves. They go to the Minister and tell him the tale, and he listens and goes around and gives the family two dollars. Thus things go on. They try the relief society. It is in the summer time. Relief societies are not much in summer. You go to the head of it, an old gentleman, and are told that between three and four are the hours. On going back at that hour, he says: "We are not giving out relief until October." They finally determine to put this woman in a hospital. She goes to the Police Station and asks to be told where there is a charitable institution or a hospital. The answer is: "There is the Alms House. I do not know of any place else." The daughter at last finds the hospital at the other end of the city. She goes to the assistant superintendent and asks if her mother can be admitted. The question is asked as to what is the matter? I do not know. She cannot be ad-

mitted. There is another hospital and the daughter tries that. There is a committee of ladies who attend to the admission here, but they closed up in June and will not admit any more until September. I am not drawing you a fancy picture. I am telling you facts. There were two other hospitals in that city but the woman did not know any one to tell her where they were or how to get in. The woman falls sick and the little girl goes to the dispensary to get medicine. She says: "My mother is sick and cannot come out." "We will come around and see your mother." Well, she tries to get into the Alms House and has a great deal of trouble, but finally gets permission to go there if she can get there. She finally gets into the hospital. In the meantime the boys have gone into the street. There was no one to put them in the Orphan Asylum. The little boy, sleeping one night on a pair of steps, was found next morning by a lady who took him in, and he became a man of usefulness.

The gentlemen who follow me will tell you what is doing elsewhere for these people and we ask you to seek them with hearts of love. Be as charitable as possible in your motives but be as wise.

THE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING CHARITY ORGANIZATIONS.

BY MR. L. L. BARBOUR.

I do not know exactly how we would have dealt with that case It is one of those kind that can only be dealt with by some organized system. In regard to the principles of an associated system of organized charities they are so well set forth in the *Monthly Register*, that I can do no better than to readwhat is given on the first page, with which perhaps most of you are familiar: "The objects of the Society are, First, To reduce vagrancy and pauperism, and ascertain their true causes." One of the causes of pauperism is that of indiscriminate giving, of which I have spoken. A person, where there is no organized charity, can go out into the community and out of ten persons will get from nine. Of course he does not want to work.

The second principle is "to prevent indiscriminate and duplicate giving." This has already been dwelt upon. In the city of Louisville, composed as it is of generous inhabitants, a man can, especially if he is shrewd, live better by begging than any workman in the city. He will hatch up a story that he has just come here from a foreign city; that he has a wife and children; that he

has a place promised him in the morning, but to-night his family have no place to sleep and they are without supper. He will tell that story at some good house and get a quarter, and then at another house and get a quarter, and go on that way until he has three or four, or five dollars. He tells some good neighbor how he is making money. That neighbor starts in the same line of business. They tell it all over the country how they can make money and get along without work, and the business grows in that way. Churches are imposed upon in the same way. Persons apply for help to a great many churches and get money.

The next principle is to reduce vagrancy and pauperism. We claim that this can be done better by an association of charities than in any other way.

The next question is how to organize an association of charities. I think you heard this afternoon how this was done in New York. A charity organization consists of a Central Council of fifteen or other number of working members, all of them trustees, with terms running from one to three years, so that you will always have some members of the committee in office all the while. This is better than to have them all go out at once. These should be such effective and reliable men as would insure financial aid to the undertaking. To this Central Council should be added such members of the City Government as are needed. A representative from each church and charitable society in the city should be added. Then these composed the central council. The council elects an executive and a secretary who keeps a registry in books furnished for that purpose. Then have the council divide the city into districts. The council can be divided into committees. One committee will form the labor bureau, which will see that all persons asking for labor are supplied. Another will see what legislation, municipal or state, would be beneficial. Hardly any circumstance can arise which cannot be handled immediately by the society.

THE VALUE OF REGISTRATION AND INVESTIGATION.

BY MR. C. S. FAIRCHILD.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: The last speaker has given you in detail the system of a Central Organization. We have such in New York. The Central Council is elected by the members of the society and persons chosen by a committee of the council upon pay-

ment of ten dollars a year become members of the society. At the annual meeting the council is elected. There are certain ex-officio members, the Mayor of the city, Chief of Police Department, and Health Department, and several others, among whom are three members of the State Board of Charities. This body was divided into committees and the city divided into districts, each committee being assigned to a district. To secure unity each district committee appoints a member to represent it on the council, and there is thus a unity between the Central Council and the District Committees. We have agents nominated by the District Committees, but approved by the Central Council. If the Central Council requires it, the District Committees must remove any agent. This has never been exercised, but the Central Council thought best to retain that power.

The Central Council meets as often as necessary for the business of the Society. The District Committees meet as often as they find it necessary for the disposal of the business arising in each of their districts. The Central Council has charge of the work of the District Committees. The registration is carried on at the central office. All these Societies, District Committees and Benevolent Societies are asked to send the names of all persons whom they assist, with the particulars concerning each case. These names are entered upon a card, also the number of their tenement and the story, and also what has been done for them. These cards are all put together, and if a person has been relieved twice his name will be on two cards. If the number of the house and room correspond, then there is a certainty about it. The district officers keep the run of these and report all they know about them. From the cards records are made up and are kept at the central office. They are gone over by the clerks in the office, who take off from the cards the street numbers and names of the family to which relief has been given. On East street and Twenty-eighth will be 100, and so on down the street, and those cards for East Twenty-eighth street will all be put together in the order of the houses. From that you can see what houses on the street have received charity. Another thing which some of the District Committees have done, and which is of very great value: They have taken a book and have entered on it what kind of a structure is upon each lot of the city, in their district, so that it will show whether it is a four-story house, a stable, a coal yard, or whatever it is. Whenever an appli-

cant comes to their office and says that he lives at 100 East street, they turn to their book and may-be see that it is a coal yard or vacant lot. That is significant information. This is a great thing and is worthy of adoption in all cities, and it does not take much labor. A few members of the committee working for a week will take a large portion of the city, and when complete it is very valuable. In instances, we have found relief sought by persons whose numbers would be in the middle of the river, or on a vacant lot. We are obliged to adopt all sorts of devices to keep up with sharp beggars. In the country everything is right under your eye, but in a great city you are miles away. We must have some system in cities which will in some measure put us in the same position we would be in in a country town. We must know our poor; knowing is all that is necessary. When you know them all the work is nearly done. If the city people knew their poor as those in the country know them there would be no trouble about relief. Where a person is entirely unknown they are liable to allow themselves to run loose. We know the great moral restraint there is upon every one of us when we know we will be with those who know us. Now a person, no matter however poor, in a large city, if he knows some one will be looking after him, will be more careful than otherwise.

A Delegate: Does your Society dispense charity itself?

Mr. Fairchild: Under no circumstances. We simply report to benevolent societies. We have a book of all the relief associations of every kind. As to the case put by Dr. Walk, one of the boys would have been put in the wood yard and in half a day the girl would have been found a place, and before night that family would have been provided for in the best way that four or five men could find. That is what charity organization would have done with that case.

Mr. Byers: We understand what you would have done with the hypothetical case put, but suppose the father is dead and the mother is a dissolute and drunken person, not fit to take care of the children, and who still

claims the right of parental authority over her children, how do you bring relief to that family?

MR. FAIRCHILD: The law gives us the authority to break up that family, or any family that would be brought up to a vicious future.

DR. COOMBS, of Louisville: There has recently been published by the Courier Journal Company of this city a directory of this city, which is arranged so as to show who lives at any given house. You can look at any number of any street and find the name of the person occupying the house. This would save the work to the district committees mentioned by Mr. Fairchild.

MR. SANBORN: To answer Mr. Byers, we have had a law allowing us to take children from vicious parents, and there have been several cases in courts, and the law has been invariably in favor of the good of the child.

MR. BYERS: What becomes of children taken by the court and placed in a home or orphan asylum?

MR. SANBORN: They are treated the same as any other children.

MR. BYERS: Who are paid in these organizations?

MR. FAIRCHILD: The only paid persons are the secretary and the clerks in the general office, and a paid visitor or agent at the general office, and then at each district office there is an agent who is paid. That is all. The motives for the rest are the general ones of a desire to do something for a fellow being. You have to keep the people up to it, just as we have kept ours up.

MR. FOLLETT: I wish to ask if this system can be successfully applied to smaller places, say, ten or five or even two thousand persons.

A DELEGATE: I think there is a charity organization in a small town in Ohio which is worked something that way; of course it would not need all this mechanism. A great deal of work could be done by the members without paying for it.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION — WORK OF DISTRICT COMMITTES.

BY MR. C. M'CULLOCH.

The case presented by Dr. Walk will serve to show how, under the Organization of Charities, it could have been handled. The Society would have known the condition of the mother, have given temporary relief, and then found permanent relief for her from the agency whose special function it was to provide for her. On her death, the children would be temporarily taken charge of at the Friendly Inn or District Home, until homes could have been found for them, or friends hunted up. The young girl would have been given a home, a place found for her, and some special Friendly Visitor appointed to look after her. It is the special feature of such organized charities, that they close up the interstitial spaces, making it a definite business to search out the cause of those whom no one regards.

The District Committee is the society in miniature. It takes the principles of the society, and applies them to individual cases which make application.

The District or Ward, is studied by those who compose the committee, until both its needs and its resources are known. Its needs are the poor and distressed within its boundaries. These must be visited, known in all the detail and circumstances of their lives. The resources are the benevolent people, the churches, and their relief societies, the factories and industries giving work, the public institutions, etc.

Each District Committee must have one or more paid visitors or superintendents. This must be an intelligent and sympathetic person, paid enough to take all his time, and to insure a continuance.

Such a superintendent becomes more valuable as the years go on.

Representatives of the different churches, relief agencies, together with individuals interested in this line of work, compose the committee. This committee meets each week, or a sub-committee oftener, to decide upon cases needing immediate attention. The superintendent has discretionary power to relieve immediate want. The object of the committee is to aid the applicant in the wisest way, looking to the permanent improvement of the condition. It is not the momentary alleviation of the suffering — there must be suffering if the condition is brought upon them

by themselves — but the ultimate recovery or helping. The easiest thing to do, is to give relief; as a physician might find it easier to give an anodyne, than to patiently work toward the cure of the evil causing the suffering. Work, personal effort to help one's self, these are the means nature takes, and we must follow nature. Such a committee, who see the great eternal thing they are working for; who will deny themselves the easy way of relief; who realize that this is no dilettante work, but serious business; who will not throw upon the superintendent everything, but will take cases under personal care, will soon solve some of the problems of the poor.

As the co-operating agencies are present, or are accessible, they can follow out any suggestion made by the committee. The city overseer, the private relief agencies, the sewing clubs, the asylums, the dispensaries, all these are channels through which relief may flow. The work of a committee, is but the work of intelligent men and women, who will soon make ways for helping those who need. In districts in large cities, there grow up a number of auxiliary agencies, under the inspiration of the idea. Free Kindergartens, Friendly Inns, Wood Yards, Industrial Sewing Clubs, Industrial Laundries, Industrial Schools, Maternity Societies, Flower Missions, Savings Societies, etc., all aid in carrying out the idea, to help the poor to help themselves by giving them better opportunities.

THE GENERAL RESULTS OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY MR. PHILIP C. GARRETT.

Mr. Garrett referred to the history of the charity organization movement, showing how its earliest American development was in the Germantown Relief Society, which originated in 1873. This was the nucleus from which the new ideas had spread over the whole county of Philadelphia. Although not under the *name*, the Germantown Society was imbued with the spirit of organized charity, and was its pioneer in this country.

Mr. Garrett then referred to the advantages of a voluntary system for the relief of the poor, over the compulsory poor law relief paid for by taxation. In Philadelphia as in Brooklyn, the abolition of municipal out-door relief had been followed by the best results. A direct saving of $50,000 annually had been effected in the former city by the discontinuance of the tax rate doles, and, much be-

yond this, the moral effect upon the people of receiving charity as a gift, rather than demanding it as a right, had been markedly beneficial. The speaker then briefly referred to the political corruption so often found attendant upon the municipal administration of relief, and urged this as another reason why the poor-law plan should be superseded by the organization of voluntary charities. Various forms of organization adapted to the varying wants of communities are wholly consistent with the plan, provided always the cardinal principles, organization, coöperation, thorough investigation, friendly visitation, and adequate relief, are kept steadily in view.

A town will not need the elaborate system made necessary by the want of a great city, nor will the west, where pauperism is but the growth of a day, call for the sternly repressive treatment of this evil, which must be employed in the east. Each community must create such an organization as will best minister to its own wants; but the great, broad, enlightened idea of charity, which it is the mission of this new movement to preach, can be at the basis of all.

Mr. Garrett then spoke of the future of Organized Charity, and the direction in which its advanced work must proceed.

The work of the future will be less for palliation than for cure, less for cure than for prevention. The Societies for Organizing Charity will give increased attention to the promotion of provident habits; to the finding of employment, by efforts toward an equalization of supply and demand in the labor market; to the securing of better sanitary conditions in the homes of the poor, and to the thorough industrial training of the class of children from which the paupers and criminals are recruited. This century has witnessed real social progress among civilized nations, and its remaining decades should be marked by even greater advances. The problem of pauperism is hard, but it is not insoluble. The organization of charity is the most promising scheme yet devised for its solution, and the principles upon which this system is founded, if not the system itself, will before long find general acceptance in all localities where the accumulation of population has made pauperism a leading and vital question.

FIFTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, September 26, 1883.

The conference was opened with prayer.

The report from the state of Iowa was read by Jennie McCowan, M. D., a state delegate.

REPORT FROM IOWA.

BY JENNIE M'COWAN, M. D.

Last year the report from Iowa gave detailed accounts of each of the charitable and correctional institutions of our state, viz.: two Hospitals for the Insane, two Penitentiaries, two Reform Schools — for boys and for girls — the College for the Blind, the Orphans' Home, the Institution for Deaf Mutes and the Institution for Feeble Minded Children.

There has been no new legislation upon any points connected with our eleemosynary or penal system, and as this conference desires to hear merely what progress has been made since its last meeting, but little can be said of Iowa. No material change has occurred since that time in either the character or the management of any of the state institutions. The additional Penitentiary at Anamosa and the Hospital for the Insane at Independence, are still unfinished, but are being pushed toward completion as rapidly as possible. The Reform School for Girls has erected an additional building, and the Orphans' Home, which is on the family system, increases its capacity as occasion requires by the erection of additional cottages. The law in regard to transferring children from the alms-houses to the Home is not mandatory, but an increasing number of county officials are beginning to realize the advantages to the state, as well as to the children, of a home where they may have industrial training and educational privileges and a *chance* to grow up into self-respecting and self-supporting members of society instead of remaining a burden to the tax-payers as life-long paupers and criminals.

The other state institutions are also in good condition, and are well managed. It is believed they will compare favorably with similar institutions in other states. They

are subject to inspection by Legislative committees, and the State Hospitals for the Insane to the further inspection of a Visiting Committee appointed by the Governor. The hospitals are crowded beyond their capacity, and installments of the incurable are from time to time remanded to the care of the counties. Our College for the Blind has the reputation of being one of the best in the United States, the National Commissioner of Education naming it as imparting a higher class of education than any similar institution in the country. Our Schools for Feeble-Minded Children and Deaf Mutes are regarded as efficiently fulfilling the purpose of their creation. The latter has reached the limits of its capacity, and another institution is beginning to be talked of, as there are in the state about five hundred deaf mute children of school age unprovided for.

In our Penitentiaries the contract system of labor prevails, the men being engaged in the manufacture of boots and shoes, horse collars and saddlery goods, farming tools, chairs and clothing. There is a growing feeling, however, adverse to either the contractors or the state receiving material benefit from convict labor, and in favor of the surplus earnings of the convict over and above the cost of his own support, being reserved either for his own use at the end of his term of imprisonment, or for the immediate use of his family. The indeterminate sentence has not yet taken root in Iowa, neither the graded system, by which the youthful prisoners may be protected from the contaminating influence of vicious and hardened convicts. A separate apartment for insane criminals, of which there are over one hundred in the state, is provided for in the plans of the additional penitentiary at Anamosa, but is not yet built. A department for female prisoners is also to be provided, and those at Fort Madison have already been transferred to Anamosa, making now eleven in number in the latter prison. This department is in charge of a matron who is doing excellent service, as is also the chaplain of the penitentiary, who, though a woman, seems to have given entire satisfaction.

A much needed addition to our penal system is a Prison Aid Society whereby discharged prisoners may be provided with employment previously arranged for, may be protected, guided and admonished by one known to be a friend, and so prevented, wherever possible, from fatal relapse into criminal habits.

Having as yet no State Board of Charities authorized to make such inquiries, it has been impossible to collect

complete and reliable information in regard to the administration of county, municipal and private charities. Our county jails and city lock-ups are the usual nurseries of vice and crime. Of the various private charities in the state, I can only say, they keep pace with the necessities which tend to create them. The Benedict Home for Fallen Women, in Des Moines, under the auspices of the State W. C. T. U., is doing a good work and is worthy of all confidence.

We have no large cities within our borders, hence the need for the organization of associated charities has seemed less urgent and, so far as I am aware, none exist in the state. Many of the evils, however, of pauperism, vice and indiscriminate giving, are rapidly increasing in our larger cities, and without doubt a modification of the system suited to their size might be much more useful and hopeful, not to say economical, than the system or rather lack of system which now prevails.

The increase of insanity in our state and the inadequate provision for the insane have, of late, occupied an increased share of public attention. The census of 1880 reported 2,544 insane persons in Iowa, which is one in every 639 of the total population of the state. In this respect Iowa compares favorably with other states, as in our sister state, Illinois, there is one in every 600, in New York one in every 360, in Massachusetts, one in every 348, while the general average for the United States is one insane person in every 545. In Iowa, 32½ per cent. of the whole number of insane are foreigners, while the per cent. of foreign element in the total population of the state is only 16. This, however, is not peculiar to Iowa, as 28 per cent. of the whole number of insane in the United States are foreigners, while only 13 per cent. of the total population is foreign. Of the whole number of insane in Iowa in 1880, 36 per cent. were in the hospitals and asylums, 16 per cent. in the alms houses, while 48 per cent. were being cared for by their friends at home. The insane in the county asylums, alms houses and jails are not subject to the supervision of the visiting committee as are the inmates of the state institutions. Dr. G. H. Hill, superintendent of the hospital at Independence, has courteously placed at my disposal the following facts collected by him in response to individual appeal to the various counties.

Twenty counties returned no answer whatever to the interrogatories sent them. Of the seventy-nine counties reporting, fourteen have now or are erecting a separate

building for the chronic insane, these buildings, with few exceptions, being on the poor-farms.

To the question, "Do you think that the insane remaining in your county are properly cared for?" thirty-two answered "yes," twenty-one answered "no," and twenty-six while answering other questions, declined to commit themselves on this point. Sixty-three counties indicated their preference for state care for the chronic insane, seven favored county care, while nine were too indifferent to reply to this question. As to the cost of supporting the insane in the county asylums and poor-houses, only forty-one counties responded, and the average for those counties was $3.22½ per week. As the per capita expense in the State Hospitals was, at Independence $3.30 and at Mt. Pleasant $3.75 per week, the main argument in favor of county care, that of economy, falls to the ground.

The meagre and unsatisfactory information gained by Dr. Hill's circular of inquiry, is not sufficient upon which to base any conclusions, but there is a wide spread conviction that in the county receptacles the care which the insane receive does not attain a just and proper standard, and in many cases the deficiencies are known to be lamentable.

The State Medical Society at its last meeting, appointed a committee of one from each Congressional District to memorialize the Legislature in behalf of the chronic insane. Later, public spirited citizens through the press, called for a commission to be appointed by the Governor, to take the whole matter into consideration and report some feasible plan for providing adequate accommodation for all the insane of the state, and it seems quite probable that some action will be taken during the coming year.

The two great needs of our State are adequate provision for the insane and a State Board of Charities. There are wide differences of opinion as to the proper functions of such a Board. The Iowa delegation are unanimously opposed to a Board of Control, by which the local Boards of Trustees are abolished, and the affairs of the institution administered by a single Board, and they believe that they reflect the opinion of a large number, if not the majority, of the citizens of the State. There is also opposition in certain quarters to placing the State institutions under any additional supervision. It is believed, however, that a hearty and unanimous support would be given to a Board which should thoroughly inspect and report upon the county asylums for the insane, the county jails, and the municipal places of detention and correc-

tion. There is substantial agreement, also, upon the desirability of some organization which shall make a study of public charity and its administration, and diffuse throughout the communities just notions of the proper treatment of pauperism, vice and crime, in order to confine them within their narrowest limits.

I desire to add that my personal convictions are in favor of the establishment of a State Board of Charities, or some other organization, which shall secure for all our public institutions, charitable and correctional, State, county, municipal, and private, thorough inspection and intelligent criticism by competent persons outside of their management.

The report from the state of Oregon was presented by the President in the absence of a delegation from that state.

REPORT FROM OREGON.

BY G. H. ATKINSON, D. D.

Insane. The condition of wants of the insane, the idiotic, the deaf and dumb, the blind, the poor, the afflicted, the criminal and the exposed are subjects of public thought and legislation, and of private charities in Oregon. A large, costly and well appointed asylum for the insane has been erected by the state at Salem, the capital, and Dr. Carpenter, a wise, intelligent, humane physician, has been chosen to superintend the institution. The insane will, in September, be removed from the private asylum of the late Dr. Hawthorne, at East Portland, to their new quarters at Salem. The private asylum building, grounds and care, have been under lease of the state for twenty or more years at a stipulated price per inmate.

That system has done well. It has been under constant supervision of state officials. It has been in charge of sober and christian gentlemen and ladies. Its inmates, now three hundred and seventy, have comprised various classes, from imbeciles, idiotic, the utterly and hopelessly fallen through *mania a potu*, those lost through self abuse, criminals adjudged insane, those needing stricter guard than home could give, those insane upon religion, doubtless those counted in the way of selfish relatives, and those who were forced in from the greed of heirs, are or have been incarcerated therein, among the really insane and violent. In fact we have

only one asylum for all these and a wider scope of classes. The question often is decided by the county judge whether a person should be kept in prison or in the insane asylum. This massing of such varieties of afflicted persons is a convenient method of putting them out of sight and hearing of friends or of the public, but it causes a chill to see them together or to know of it. A union soldier, with a family, a wife and six small children, religious, sober, industrious, earning his living with his team, suddenly developed a mania. He was placed in the asylum a few days. He recovered and returned home. Five of his children became sick with scarlet fever. His depression seemed to break his mind again. He is again in the Asylum. How many men have been broken down by the strain of war, of disappointment and losses, of domestic burdens, and of disease, and how hard it is to crowd them together with the imbecile, the violent and the imbruted? True, separate apartments allow classification, but it is the same insane asylum, and the very name tends to create the thing.

Deaf and Dumb. During eight or ten years or more, the legislature has made a small biennial appropriation for the care and instruction of this class, of whom there are in Oregon about one hundred, as I recollect. Rev. P. S. Knight, of Salem, is the Superintendent of this charity. Two or three small buildings have been leased for their care, as domiciles and for school rooms. The pupils make good progress in knowledge and in habits of self help.

Blind. The legislature grants a stipend for this class of unfortunates, of whom there are not a large number as yet. These funds are in charge of a superintendent and his assistants at Salem. Buildings and rooms are hired for use of the pupils. Complaint is made that neither of these charities have received proper attention. It is obvious that in new states there are fewer cases of these unfortunates, and the people are slower to see their needs.

The Poor. The counties usually provide for the poor through their board of commissioners, two of whom are elected to act with the county or probate judge upon charities and various other subjects. In some counties the poor are kept by the lowest bidder, in others, farms are bought and comfortable quarters are provided, in care of a superintendent and matron. The aim is to deal kindly with the aged, and infirm, and sick, and suffering poor.

The "Hoodlum" Element. This class is found in various stages of growth, not among the poor, and ignorant and vicious alone, but it is reported that some children of those who have the comforts and luxuries of life and much of its wealth and learning, are sinking into the hoodlum ranks. It is a noticeable fact that the idle and the criminal classes are comparatively young. The *downward drift* is one of the marked phases of modern social life. The vicious, and the brutal in tastes and habits are largely found under twenty or thirty years of age. Some of these items are daily before us.

The causes may be: 1st. The frequent changes which break up and scatter families and encourage discontent, and the effort to live without work. 2nd. The increase of drinking and its vices. 3rd. The trades unions which bar out youth from the industries. 4th. The lack of religious training and convictions. 5th. The neglect of sound education and the prevalent habit of reading bad books and papers. Mere boys of 10 and 12 imitate the published crimes.

Some efforts have been made to establish a reform school, but with no success.

Public Schools. These are popular and improving. They win children and hold them, and save a large per cent. in cities and in the country districts. In this city and in other large towns they are graded and well classified, and disciplined. They are a strong factor to mould the heterogeneous elements into some degree of unity and use.

The Sabbath Schools. As corrective agencies, they are, no doubt, next to the family itself, a most effective means of conserving good morals, and a useful life. They are established in every village and a majority of outside settlements.

Orphan Asylums. These hardly exist in form, yet three or four relief societies furnish homes for a limited number of orphans. The Catholics lead in this charity.

Hospitals. Two of these are established in this city. one by the Catholics and one by the Episcopal Bishop. Other towns have them under the same patronage, but on a smaller scale.

Penitentiaries and Jails. Every county has the latter at the shire town. In the country it is usually of plank or timber, with iron cells, opening into a single, not well-lighted or ventilated room. Prisoners are fed and guarded and allowed a cot, and very few means of self-improvement. Brick jails replace those of wood when counties grow rich and populous. Few of the jails, so

far as I have observed, have separate rooms for the various classes of prisoners. They walk and sit in a common room or corridor when out of their cells. They are visited by the charitable and religious, yet their free commingling works for the infection of evil instead of good. It prepares for more crimes and their severest penalties. They are idle while in jail and this breeds vice.

Our State Penitentiary is built on the Charlestown plan, but not so elaborate or costly, or complete for classification and the silent system. The convicts are generally employed, under the contract plan, in various trades. They work at brickmaking, in harness and saddlery, in wood, in stove manufacture, in gardens—probably in a half-dozen other industries. It improves them, but does not reform and save them. They break out, rebel, commit crimes, and plot insurrections, which spread from the bad to the trustiest. Schools and religious services have some good effect for the moment, but often they are used as a cover. The recruits are so frequent and the inter-communication is so easy that the teaching of evil pervades the mass more than that of good. The industries may serve with other means to put some convicts on the path of reform. From the idle there is little to be hoped in or out of prison. The public expect no recovery of the criminal as a rule.

The saloon, the gambling table, and the brothel. This trio cause, nurse and perpetuate crime, misery, poverty and the utter ruin of men and women. The saloon leads, and the other vices attend in the path of crime. The many murders are found to be involved with the whisky saloons. Those who pander to the one, become affiliated with the other.

Intemperance is the crushing burden upon our new states; the most fruitful source of the evils, which we recount and deplore. Its correction is the radical necessity. Total abstinence would be the most effective reformation.

The Report from the state of Tennessee was made by Rev. J. W. Bachman as follows:

As was said, last evening, the state of Tennessee has no State Board of Charity. But the institutions, for the insane particularly, in Tennessee are, I think, up with the age. There was not adequate provision for the insane at

Nashville, and at the last Legislature $80,000 was appropriated for a new asylum in the eastern portion of the state. The institution for the blind and that for the deaf and dumb are also hardly adequate. But the deaf and dumb institution at Knoxville is a model institution. Any person who has ever visited it will say that under the management of the late Prof. Rhines that institution was a model of neatness and efficiency.

We have what is known as the contract system in our penitentiary. The prisoners are leased out to certain parties, who pay the State so much for their labor. The State, however, has guards and officers, who are in control of the convicts. The contractors feed them and have full control over the labor, but they are not allowed to inflict corporal punishment. The convicts are mostly employed digging coal, and are in a position where it is pretty hard to escape. The life is very rigorous, and I think they are pretty severely punished. I cannot give any statistics as to the mortality among them.

We have what we call county work-houses, in which we confine those sentenced for lesser crimes and misdemeanors, such as petit larceny. These institutions are under the control of the county courts, and the inmates are made to work. A committee from the court visits the institution as often as necessary, to see that they are properly fed and clothed. They are made to work, about as much as a hired hand is made to work, upon the public roads. The discipline is very strict. By that means we have a very good set of county roads. I think that they are treated in this manner, in our county, as humanely as it is possible to treat them and punish them at all. The mortality is comparatively nothing. In the last five years we have only lost three. We carry a chain-gang of forty or fifty.

Hon. JOHN C. SCARBOROUGH, State Superintendent of Schools, of North Carolina, reported for that state as follows:

MR. SCARBOROUGH — We have no written report. This is my first visit to this Conference, to which I came at the earnest solicitation of Mr. Mills, the Superintendent of the Orphan Asylum. My work is connected with educational matters. I have been, during the past summer, canvassing the state on educational matters. I am not up on the charitable work of our state, nor very familiar with the charitable institutions, and I do not know that I can give a very good account of them.

Our state penitentiary, located at Raleigh, has, I think, about 1,100 convicts. Most of them are negroes. There are few whites. Most of them are confined for offenses of a minor character. Our penitentiary is under the control of a board of directors, nominated by the Governor of the State and confirmed by the Senate. The board consists of five members. These members appoint all the officers of the prison. The officers, so far as I know, all belong to one party. I think that has been the rule since the establishment of the penitentiary. We have only had a penitentiary since the war. So far as I know, the management and control of the convicts in the penitentiary is humane and good. It is well managed for the comfort and moral reformation of the convicts. The convicts are leased out to farmers, and a great many planters have their cotton picked by convicts, guarded by state officials. The state is doing something itself in the way of a farm, renting the land and working it by convicts. There are about six hundred convicts who are working on railroads and on public roads in the mountains and swamps of the east. There are about five hundred at work on the Western and North Carolina Railroads. The state has at all times full control of the convicts, and sees that their food is properly prepared. We have heard no complaints recently on the subject.

Our county jails are badly managed. I have visited some of them, and though laymen have done some religious work in them, I have almost universally found them in a bad condition. They are under the supervision of boards of county commissioners, who appoint the jailers, and in a large number of them little attention is paid to the comfort of the inmates or the elevation of them morally. They need to be reformed radically. In our jails are confined men and women for lesser offenses, their sentences being from thirty days to six months. The great trouble with them is the lack of supervision.

In reference to our insane asylums, the oldest one is at Raleigh, and the Western Asylum is at Morgantown. The insane asylum for the colored people is at Goldsborough. I have no information and could perhaps give no correct estimate of the number of patients in these three asylums. I have no definite information, because I did not think of it in this connection. Our insane asylums are under the direction and control of what we call boards of directors. Each asylum has a separate board, and there is a superintendent for each. These boards of directors are nominated by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. Each board appoints the superintendent and officers of the asylum over which it presides. Dr. Griscom is at the head of the institution for the insane at Raleigh, and has been, for a number of years, under both political parties; and while it was charged that his predecessor, Dr. Fisher, was removed because of his politics, and Dr. Griscom put in in his place, he has been an efficient officer, and the parties have not disturbed him. He has friends in one party as well as in the other. The asylum at Morgantown is for whites. It is incomplete, but it is being built. It has been used as an insane asylum since the past spring. It is under the care of Dr. Murphy, a man of fine standing and ability, who has given universal satis-

faction. The other asylum is for colored people, and is at Goldsborough. It is a large building, built more in accordance with the principles of common sense than either of the other two. It is under the supervision of a board of directors nominated by the governor and confirmed by the Senate. It is incomplete as yet, but there are a large number of colored insane there.

BISHOP ROBERTSON: How many are there?

MR. SCARBOROUGH: About one hundred and fifty, I think. Besides, there are large numbers in our county jails. These state institutions are well managed, so far as our information goes. We need information, and I wish the officers of these institutions were here to represent our state in this Conference. We have no Board of Charities in North Carolina.

I have visited our county poor houses, and I must say that they need reforming. They are under the control and supervision of county commissioners, who have to provide for them. They levy taxes for their support. These boards are composed of three or five members. They are generally looking after economy, in their sense of the term, which in our sense means stinginess. Many of the poor paupers are put up to the lowest bidder; the one who will take care of them for the least is given charge of them.

THE CHAIRMAN: Without regard to sex, age, or previous condition?

MR. SCARBOROUGH: Yes, sir. Some of the poor-houses have farms connected with them, and the inmates do farm work.

MR. HOYT: How are the expenses of the state asylums defrayed; by a tax upon the county or upon the commonwealth?

MR. SCARBOROUGH: By a tax upon the commonwealth.

MR. WRIGHT: Perhaps it ought to be said that Mr. Scarborough, as I have been informed, in addition to su-

pervising the educational work of his state, has been very generously doing the work of a State Board of Charities, in visiting jails and poor-houses, and urging upon county boards important reforms in their management. I think he deserves a great deal of praise for his philanthropic work.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON CRIMES AND PENALTIES.

I. CRIME LIKELY TO CONTINUE.

Crime is coeval with humanity; its history is race history. The earliest concept of Deity is associated with crime. The Decalogue deals with it, present or prospective, shows the mind of the Almighty as perceived or imagined, and foreshadows at the creation crimes inevitable if not intended to be. Crimes actual first produced ordinances or laws, while later, if not at first, laws produced crimes. "The law came, sin revived, and I died, and without the law sin is dead." Conditions, commands, laws, being essential to race culture, and crimes so closely correlated with laws, it seems conclusive, does it not, that crime is and probably was intended to be a concomitant of civilization, so that to extirpate it, human nature must be changed and human society be recast. This is a problem for the Infinite, not properly for criminals which, in some sense, we all are. Could all individuals in existence simultaneously, and all that shall succeed us, instantaneously be freed from the last vestige of criminality, then this problem of the gods might engage us; but since it is obvious that no such result can be reached by emanatory effort, it is doubtful if we may strive after it, for the limit of duty is that which is possible.

II. STATUTORY VIOLATIONS MAY BE DIMINISHED.

It is possible by wise endeavor to diminish the volume of crimes in violation of statutory laws; therefore it is a duty; and we are to inquire by what means and in what manner the result is to be reached. The means are twofold; those, various, operating upon society at large, educational and moral, producing intelligent self-interest with the true public sentiment or sense of tribal ap-

proval, as it is sometimes termed; and secondly, the treatment of convicted criminals. The former is the appropriate sphere of schools, churches and charities, (aided by government, if you please); the latter belongs specially to organized civil government, it is the science of penology. The method must be natural, not fictitious, since crime, the heritage of barbarism, is fostered by ignorance, indigence, by indifference and evil example in high places; education and moral impression upon the mass of mankind seem the natural means, and if, as is verily believed, vengeful penalties promote it, then remedial treatment should be substituted therefor.

III. THE INEFFICIENCY OF CRIMINAL PUNISHMENTS.

The inefficiency of criminal punishments to repress crime at present and throughout the ages, is believed to be largely attributable to the spirit of retaliation that pervades them; at least it may be safely said that the deterrent principle, if not an entire failure, has not yet found its true place in public punishments for crime. The sanguinary penalties of all history are accompanied with numerous crimes, while offenses have diminished as penalties have been softened. Neither amphitheatre, stake nor cross, nor sewn alive with serpents in the sack and thrown into the sea; indeed nothing of penalty that human ingenuity could devise has prevented crimes to any observable extent. The only apparent usefulness of deterrent penalties seems to be that after very long periods of time, there comes to be, in connection with them, a public sentiment, dim and undefined though it be, but of dread or detestation for the crimes to which they are applied, a sentiment discovered not so much with the times and people of their use as with the succeeding generations to which it is transmitted. But the effect here is countervailed with an inclinative tendency to revenge personal grievances by similar means, also derived from the same source. There is no doubt but a tendency to use a particular weapon in anger is carried along from one generation to another in different nationalities; the Italians and Spaniards instinctively resort to the stiletto, Irishmen to the shillelah, the border American shoots readily, etc., etc.; so that the inference is warranted that there is also transmitted from age to age, by the very severity of criminal punishments intended to deter, an actual tendency to crime. If, then, the true measure of value for a penalty or class of penalties is to be found, not immediately, but remotely, in the general tendency it promotes, and since throughout the range of

human experience like produces like, vengeance stimulates revenge, it is doubtful whether the best protection is had from the deterrent principle in punishments. (It is notable, in this connection, that the effect of abolishing the death penalty in England and Wales, between 1855 and 1879, for the crimes of burglary, housebreaking, cattle stealing, horse stealing, sheep stealing, arson and forgery, was accompanied with a diminution of these crimes to the extent of an average of 26 per cent.) To understand aright the effect of penalties, they must be studied from the view-point of the law-breaker, rather than the law-maker. The effect of penalties upon the criminal is peculiar. We imagine what would be our own action under penalties, forgetting too often that men rarely go at one bound from rectitude to crime. There is usually a blunting of sensibilities, deterioration of manhood, a beclouding of the moral nature, the resultant of vice and undetected obliquities previous to conviction of actual crime. There is, of course, a large class which for good behavior need neither laws nor penalties. The laws are made not for them but for others.

There are professional criminals; there are "cranks," so-called; and those that fall into crime only under exceptional circumstances,—penalties are for these. The professional regards penalties but as his business risk, the hazard of the venture, giving zest and flavor to it. The rattle-brains or cranks are not capable of right reasoning in such a matter; even when quite cognizant of consequences sure to follow, they reach wrong conclusions, or they are carried away by their cyclonic emotions, as go also exceptional criminals under stress of circumstances. Evidently deterrent penalties are scarcely preventive here. There remains yet another class to be affected by laws with their penalties, namely, the criminally inclined, so by heredity, environment and by habit. Society has always contained them — indeed produces them. They form a substratum, dangerous and defective, comprising the bulk of population for laws and penalties. Criminals from this class cannot be rescued unless the habitual, impulsive tendency is self-restrained, improved or changed. Such a revolution of character cannot, certainly, be wrought by punishments, as such. It is true of them as of the rebellious of old, they "will revolt more and more, the whole head is sick, the whole heart is faint." None of us are, so much as is supposed, influenced by obstacles to relinquish that which we greatly desire: so long as the desire remains we pursue the object of it, and is not the

principle true whether we are impelled to that which is good or bad? Something to be gained, rather, is the natural inspiration, is it not. Fear depresses while hope inspires. Already in law and practice the old sanguinary penalties for crime are abandoned, but their spirit pervades the laws and the penitentiary system of to-day. Let this evil spirit be cast out and replaced, not with sentimentalism and superstition, but with the curative or reformative principle, and let it be wisely and firmly applied.

IV. THE PENITENTIARY SYSTEM.

The penitentiary system is of recent origin, almost within the present century, and it was not until the latter part of the XVIII century that attention was much given to the horrors, abuses and errors of the then existing criminal codes and penalties. Yet, withal, too near the barbarism of the dark ages to be entirely rid of the errors it was intended to correct, the penitentiary treatment of criminals was an attempt to moderate some punishments and to abolish others repugnant to the public sense, and to better adjust the punishment to the offence, in the expectation that confinement, hard labor, and the pain of imprisonment with opportunity for meditation would produce penitence, the supposed precursor and condition of self-restraint and moral reformation. The principle of pain inflicted for deterrence and privations for penitence, was preserved and is to-day maintained. It was in 1790 the State Prison at Philadelphia was erected, the New York Penitentiary in 1796; other states following quickly, as Massachusetts in 1800, Maryland in 1811; Vermont, 1808; New Hampshire, 1812; Ohio, 1816; and at about the same time New Jersey, Tennessee and Kentucky moved in the matter. The laws providing for these prisons were accompanied usually with the repeal of the death penalty for many crimes. It was soon apparent that the penitentiary system was no preventive of crimes, and as early as 1822 the question was carefully and seriously canvassed of abandoning it altogether with a return to the old sanguinary punishments. It was concluded finally that notwithstanding the penitentiary system was well-nigh a failure, it must be preserved because corporal punishments and the death penalty for crimes generally, would not be again approved by the public sentiment of the American people, and transportation for crime was impracticable. The real obstacle to the success of the system was the same sixty years ago

as it is to-day. It is believed to be the vain reliance upon punishment to prevent crimes. The projectors of the penitentiary system seemed not to perceive it, and now we are marvelously slow in learning it. Can there be doubt that had the penitentiary system at its inception been pervaded with the principle of reformation and the alternative of incapacitation, the indeterminate sentence principle so ably discussed before this conference last year at Madison, Wisconsin, by Col. Burchard, there would have been better results reached, and greater progress attained in the treatment of criminals and prevention of crime?

V. DEFECTS OF SIXTY YEARS AGO STILL EXISTING.

It is also interesting to observe the perceived defects of the penitentiary system sixty years ago, and to note that they are well recognized defects of to-day. They are as stated then, viz.:

Errors of construction.
Want of classification.
Insufficient room.
Too frequent intervention of pardons.
No thorough systematic education of prisoners.
Too frequent change of governors.
Too much regard for revenue.

VI. STRUCTURES.

If we advert to the receptacles for criminals first after arrest, the station-houses and jails, there is the testimony of awakened philanthropic individuals and societies and of boards of charities, that generally they are in a dreadful condition, far below what is required for humanity and decency. It is believed every abuse named by the philanthropic Howard as found in jails a hundred years ago, may be found to exist to-day in some jails in every state in the Union. The jails are badly constructed and arranged. The only true plan for a county jail is the Pennsylvania system of separate confinement. As to the buildings for juvenile prisoners, by whatever name they are designated, the tendency for years has been towards the family system, with and without an enclosure. Probably the true style of domicile for this use is a combination of both classes of structures, that is to say, a central establishment with separate rooms for some and the family buildings for others; and, no doubt, ultimately, a wide enclosure for the whole establishment will be generally adopted. It

is not known that any important general advance from the first construction has been made in juvenile prisons, and the same may be said of prisons for adults. There are many excellent prison establishments as relates to strength and security, and, possibly, some sanitary betterment belongs to the more modern of them; but there is not more than one, if any, adult prison planned and built from the start for the high remedial treatment of prisoners; and let it be remembered that the prison house itself has much to do with the success or failure of whatever is attempted within it. There are several well-constructed county and municipal prisons for the purpose intended, and the more modern of state prisons are for their purpose quite creditable. The newest of the great state prisons is the Massachusetts State Prison at Concord. The New York State Reformatory, at Elmira, is one of the latest of prison structures, and possesses unusual conveniences for reformative work, and the Eastern Penitentiary, at Philadelphia, is a model in its construction and sanitary condition for prisons of its class. The difficulty of insufficient room in the Philadelphia prisons and in many others of the Auburn class of prisons is a serious matter. It necessitates placing two or more prisoners in the same room, and greatly interferes with discipline, and with reformation where it is sought. The legislature of New York last winter, passed a bill prohibiting doubling up in the cells of the prisons of that state. The real relief is best found, however, in a graduated prison system enabling the transfer of prisoners from one prison to another, or from one grade to another in the same prison, with the authority to conditionally release as is practiced at the Elmira Reformatory.

VII. CLASSIFICATION.

Nothing like a suitable classification of convicts, up to the present time, has been achieved, scarcely anything more than the separation of the sexes and of juvenile from adult criminals, and this for negative rather than positive effects; the principle of classification for a positive reformatory result has not anywhere been really applied. No doubt, the general separation of women and children from men and mature criminals has enabled and, may be, induced reformative effort. While separation thus shows the principle of classification to be a sound one, it comes far short of the true ideal; it is a natural line of division properly preparatory to the finer, nicer classification that takes note of mental and

moral deficiencies and obliquities with the purpose to develop and work changes necessary for reformation, and impart the particular training to each group and individual best fitting them for free life under the circumstances most likely to surround them. Classification may be with or without separation, it is the forming of groups according to some common properties, relations, or affinities for diagnosis, with invention or discovery of curative means and methods, and their application to each. The woman's prison in Massachusetts has applied this principle, but to what extent and with what result is not now and here known. The Girls' Industrial School at Adrian, Michigan, is certainly an advance in this matter; and among institutions treating adult felons, classification in the sense here used has probably been most thoroughly tried at the New York Reformatory, at Elmira, before mentioned.

VIII. LABOR SYSTEMS.

After suitable and sufficient penitentiary buildings are supplied, the thing next in importance is a right system of classification to be followed immediately with industrial occupation.

There is too much regard for revenue now as was the case sixty years since.

(A) The necessary cost over earnings for prison maintenance is small when compared with other public expenditures; it is an amount the people will gladly pay for genuine protection from crime. Assure them of proper economy, good business management, and they are satisfied. Revenue at sacrifice of better benefits is not really desired. Two millions saved to the state of New York by Superintendent Pilsbury during his term of five years, had no influence in naming his successor, his reward was retirement. The ante-mortem statement made to the writer by Amos Pilsbury, the father, was of regret that he had paid any prison revenues into the public coffers, and that he had not expended the profits earned by his remarkably successful financial management upon the criminals of his charge in various ways for the public benefit through them. It is possible but not always desirable that prisons shall be self-sustaining. Regard for revenue is the prop of the southern and southwestern lease system, supposed to be bad, and of the prison contract system generally in vogue throughout the country, which is also an obstacle to the best results from the penitentiary system.

(B) The current contract system of employment re-

lieves the state from risking public funds in the hands of public officers in manufacturing and commerce; simplifies the immediate management of prison and prisoners; and furnishes for the time, a definite and reasonably reliable income easily estimated. On the other hand it leaves the liability of idleness for the prisoners at the expiration of the contract period, or what is almost as great an evil, the introduction of a new industry often disorganizing, indeed well nigh destroying the possible benefits to the men from sustained industrial training; the very simplicity of business management makes it a place for partizan appointments, leads to frequent change of governors, which, depressing a healthful ambition, hinders progress and deprives the state and the prisons of the benefit of long experience in prison government; it introduces among prisoners through the contractor and his agents a mercenary motive inordinately, and sometimes with a finesse and crookedness, in their contact with the criminal, akin to the finesse and crookedness of the criminal himself and for which he is confined; it divides the controlling authority, introducing an influence, political or otherwise, often dominating the prison officers, determining the very discipline of the establishment; its tendency is to drive the prisoner, if not under too great nervous strain and beyond proper physical effort, to drive him nevertheless and along a single process of routine work with little regard to preparation for his future industrial prosperity; in short, the contract system in its spirit and practice is opposed to the real and high purpose for which the state maintains the penitentiaries, namely, protection from crimes through the reformation of the offenders.

The question of convict contract labor is a live one at this time. California has abolished it by constitutional amendment, and Pennsylvania by act of the last legislature. Ohio is committed to its abolition by the platform of both political parties in that state, and has at work now a commission to report to the next legislature a bill to that effect. In New York the people are to vote on the question this fall. New Jersey has restricted contracts for prison labor by limitations injurious if not ruinous, and throughout the country legislatures are considering it. It seems the contract system must go, it certainly would go if the wisdom of the times could suggest a satisfactory system of labor to replace it. It is understood that the public outcry against the system is largely demagogic, and is as much against every sytem of prison labor as against this particular form of it; but there is

little prospect that sober-minded citizens will consent to the cost, the corrupting effect, and the cruelty of maintaining the prisoners of our penitentiaries in idleness. The thoughtful among us, recognizing the real evils, are moved by this factious opposition even, to get rid of the system with its evils and because of its evils. The want of the time is some suitable substitute.

(C) The "Public Account Plan," that is, when the state becomes the manufacturer, furnishing capital, conducting the manufactures, and disposing of the products in open market, has been tried with varied success, and is now the system in several short-term prisons, at least, and in the state prisons of California. The points in its favor are (presuming good management,) viz:

It supplies a basis of inherent income as permanent and reliable as the income of a private or corporate business firm, enabling such perfection of organization and steadiness of administration as promotes, in harmony with other means, the best disciplinary development of the prisoners. It gives unity to the prison government by which the industries may be delivered from the purpose of pelf, facilitating the teaching of trades and training in higher branches of mechanical and industrial arts.

It makes an active demand for very competent prison governors, and is therefore likely to secure the most competent prison management in all respects. The skill required in the business affairs and the opportunity to exercise it leaves no time for the officers to manipulate caucuses or politics, tending thus to remove prison management from partizanship, giving permanency to official position, a field for worthy ambition, with opportunity for study, invention and experiment in the intricate matter of making over bad men or citizens into good ones, which is the real purpose of penitentiary treatment and the highest work that can engage human energies.

But there are objections to the Public Account System that are so weighty as to prevent probably its general adoption. There is the monetary risk. Not so much the ordinary hazard of capital in manufactures and commerce nor the extraordinary hazard of public money so invested and managed by officials who, of themselves, have no practical knowledge of the business they conduct, or personal liability in case of loss or failure, for these risks may be reduced to the minimum. But rather the risk arising from the fact that the industries must be really under control of a popular legislature whose action may be affected by partizan or other

considerations than those governing a business firm in the conduct of its business. In one instance, at least, the industries of an institution well-organized, developed to the point of acknowledged immediate success were, by the manipulated legislature, changed, involving an unnecessary sacrifice of valuable goods and a permanently diminished annual income. Another objection is, that this system occupies too much of the time and attention of the prison governor in outside business, such as purchasing manufacturing material and sale of products, diverting thus his time and attention from that personal knowledge of each prisoner under his charge, so necessary to real reformative results; or, in case a commmissioner of industries is employed, divides the responsibility, tending to interference and friction as injurious as is the divided control under the ordinary *per diem* contract system. A compulsory reformatory system involves the direction by a single head, of all the means, whether industrial, educational, disciplinary, or moral and religious. It is so intricate and delicate as to be easily destroyed by extraneous influences or conflicting control.

The Public Account System in form as we are considering it, is impolitic because of the large amount of investment required, and the popular suspicion when public money is largely intrusted to individual investment and care. It is estimated that for plant, for material, for a stock of manufactured goods, and for cost of citizen experts, each operative or prisoner must represent one thousand dollars of capital; so that a prison of five hundred workers would require half a million of money for manufacturing, while for the State Prisons of New York, upon this basis, three millions must be supplied by the tax-payers. It could hardly be expected that such an opportunity for patronage could long remain unused for partizan ends, or if, by any means, it should be kept strictly to its legitimate use, the necessary conflict to preserve it would of itself jeopard the general prison management. It is questionable also whether it is not wrong in principle for the government of a state or nation to directly engage in manufacturing and commercial enterprise with funds forced by taxation from the pockets of the people.

(D) There is a possible substitute for the contract and Public Account Systems well nigh free from the objections named. It is the *Piece Price Plan;* that is to say, the contractor shall supply machinery, materials, and, perhaps, citizen expert instructors, receiving and disposing

of the manufactured goods on his own account of course. The state furnishes operatives (prisoners) whose services are to be paid for, not by the day, as now, but by the piece or process for work done to a given standard of perfection. By this system (1) the state is relieved from furnishing manufacturing capital; (2) the whole business of the prison governors is with the prisoners; (3) the control of the prisoners is unified; (4) the evil influence of the contract employes is abated, because the contractor gains nothing by extorting exorbitant tasks, there is no motive for chicanery; (5) the state is most sure to receive the real value of the prisoners' labor, more or less, and the state alone is responsible for the amount the prisoner shall earn; (6) the Piece Price plan best enables the prison government to place the prisoner in condition, as to labor and living, closely analogous to the natural social state in this regard, the prisoner may be made to live and enjoy whatever he can earn but no more, and such a situation is most serviceable in training and testing under the remedial règime; (7) since the Piece Price plan is almost universally in use by private manufacturers, the fair rate per piece can be easily ascertained and may by law, if thought best, be fixed at the average paid free laborers in the same locality for the same quality of work, thus, to the nearest possible point equalizing the valuation of prison labor and free labor by which injurious competition here, if any exists, is removed.

Contractors generally express themselves satisfied with such a system, because they are by it relieved from all anxiety and liability for the quantity of work the prisoners shall do or not do, being sure to get an equivalent for every dollar paid the state for labor.

The Piece Price Plan can be put in place of the contract or Public Account System easily and without injury; the present industries may be and would naturally be continued. The system of accounts required is simple, and may be fully guarded against fraud by the identity of interest in earnings between the state and the prisoner.

Prison industries should always subserve conjointly three grand purposes which are, when stated inversely, as to their importance namely, Income, Discipline, Rehabilitation. Believing the plan here proposed best meets this requirement and quite removes any real or fancied ground of complaint from the mercantile or laboring classes, it is recommended that the Piece

Price plan be put in the place of the Contract and Public Account systems of employing prisoners.

IX. EDUCATION OF PRISONERS.

It is surprising so little has been done for the education of prisoners. The juvenile prisons have schools, some of which are efficient, as schools go, but others are inefficient and perfunctory; while in adult prisons generally nothing of importance is attempted. There is known to be in many adult prisons cell-door or Sunday morning teaching to illiterates, which, if better than nothing, is certainly insufficient and by no means entitled to be called systematic education. Every prisoner in the penitentiaries should be placed under a graduated compulsory educational system while in prison, the school to be manned with the very best teachers and thoroughly worked with the most approved methods. The feasibility and utility of such schooling has been thoroughly tested and surely established. Such a school may be provided for every penitentiary without interference with the hours for work, without any burdensome expenditure or cost, and without endangering the safe keeping of the prisoners. Large classes conducted on the oral plan of instruction, with monthly written examinations, taught by teachers not connected with the prison but brought in from the neighborhood for this special service at the school hour, is the best plan. None or but few text-books are required, for each lesson should be previously prepared by the teacher and printed by itself, for which an outfit of press and type costing $500 is sufficient, and almost every prison has a prisoner printer fit for this service. The course of instruction should include, at least, in addition to the usual primary English branches taught in the common schools, Physical Geography, Political Economy, Physics, Ethics, Natural and Moral Theology; and a recent experiment has shown the value of technical instruction in industrial as well as mechanic arts. The purposes of such a course are to develop the prisoner, per force, out of the criminal condition and character, and fit him for free life. If it be objected that education is not reformation, it may be answered that there is no reformation without education, and that honest behavior depends more than is imagined upon the ability to earn easily an amount sufficient to supply natural and proper needs. The penitentiary system should thus prepare its prisoners.

X. THE PARDONING POWER.

The exercise of the pardoning power vested in the Governor of the State should be, under a truly reformatory prison system, a rare clemency. The release of prisoners whether by pardon or otherwise should be only on condition of reasonable security against their further crimes, and then always with due regard to the effect upon society. The governing authority of the prison can best advise or determine this. The true limit of pardons by the Governor of the State is the correction of errors as shown by new evidence. The free issue of pardons has in some quarters given rise to carelessness in sentencing prisoners, the Judicial having thrust its responsibility in this matter upon the Executive branch of the government. It would be a benefit if the judges could feel that their functions are final in criminal cases, unless for the best of reasons and in exceptional cases. Under the Indeterminate System of sentence there is really no reason for pardons by the Governor. But two pardons in seven years were issued to the inmates of the Elmira Reformatory in New York, where this system is in use.

XI. TOO FREQUENT CHANGE OF PRISON GOVERNORS.

The too frequent change of prison governors is an evil still. It is the product of our political system and of the low plane the prison question occupies in the public mind. The American idea that everybody can do everything paves the way for it, and the punitive idea pervading our laws perpetuates it. When it is generally understood that the proper protection of society from crimes requires the cure of criminal characteristics by natural means and rational methods, it will be apparent that men must be trained for such a work. Prison governors with good natural qualifications, broad-minded enough to scorn retaliation on the one hand and sickly sentimentalism on the other, thoroughly trained and firmly supported by the public should be kept in their place for a life-long service. Society with such agents may under a proper system secure protective and other benefits from the penitentiary system, so greatly needed, so long and vainly sought.

XII. THE PENITENTIARY PROBLEM A SOLUBLE ONE.

Practically considered the prison question is not an impossible one; great as is this public interest, it may be wisely controlled. The aggregate of prisoners of all

grades is, in the United States, 70,000, of which number there are in hospitals, asylums, and reformatories, etc., 12,000; leaving less than 60,000 in the penitentiaries and jails. If we deduct then the prisoners in jails and station houses, 14,000, a special class not yet subject to penitentiary treatment, there remain only 46,000 penitentiary prisoners proper, a nunber less than one-half the population of the city of our present sojourn. Surely there must be power and wisdom enough in the times and the government to effectually prevent further crimes from these. Yet we are from the prisons themselves sending out constantly a stream of moral leprosy, crowding the courts, creating a crime class in society, endangering the life and property of peaceful citizens; a class which, in the hands of unscrupulous leaders, is dangerous to the whole republic. Mr. Cable speaks confidently of a quarter of a million, and Mr. Round of a half-million ex-convicts abroad in community. There is no question but current crimes are largely committed or incited by this element in society. It is high time the question of penitentiary treatment is put on a sound basis of security to the public against crimes, an end to which the influence of this conference should certainly contribute.

XIII. CONCLUSION.

Let the criminal laws be reformed until criminals properly committed shall be obliged to reform or remain under needed restraint. Reform the prison structures, giving room enough with facilities for classification and efficient educational work. Then classify and educate until every prisoner, to the extent of his capacity for the time allowed, is developed in industry, in mind and moral control of himself and until upon conditional release he actually shows his ability for good citizenship.

To this end, let partizanship, whether political or religious, be eliminated. Give us prison governors capable and trained, and allow them to remain so long as they serve well. In short, elevate prison management from the low plane of its present existence to that of its true importance, where the practical purpose of public benefit shall be the inspiration, scientific and sensible methods be employed, and, the public approval be awarded not for producing revenue alone, but for accomplishing the higher purposes for which laws, systems and penitentiaries are erected. Respectfully submitted,

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REFORMATION IN PENAL TREATMENT.

BY JUDGE A. H. YOUNG.

The subject of Penology is one of the most important ones which society and the state are now called to consider, and in a sense, perhaps, ranks all others in its claim for wise consideration.

That crime in its different phases is the most serious disturbing element in our social and political system, will not be questioned; but it has existed so long, in every age of the world's history, that society has come to look upon it as incident to human depravity, and in general to increase or diminish as reforms, from whatever influence, shall affect, or fail to affect, human character and social morals. So long as governments have existed, criminal laws have, for their enforcement, been backed up by penalties, in severity proportioned to the civilization of the age; but until a very recent date, little if any thought has been given to the moral effect upon the subject, of the infliction of such penalty. At times the deterrent power of criminal law has been supposed to be fairly proportioned to the severity of the penalty; but experience has questioned this principle, and modern civilization revolts against its adoption as a legislative rule, and so governments have been straitened to know how best to deal with crime, being prompted upon the one hand, in order to secure the most deterrent effects of the law, to great severity; and upon the other hand, being moved by considerations of humanity and charity, to the exercise of mercy. And, as a natural consequence, these two influences have produced criminal laws in different states and governments, unequal in their terms, but, as far as statistics show, varying but little in the general result.

The world is moving; moving with rapid strides; never so rapidly as now, and with this movement is growing more charitable, less vengeful, more liberal in thought, with broader conceptions of justice, mercy and compassion, and possibly more appreciative of the value of a human soul. There is a consequent tendency on the part of the advance guard in this great movement to relax forces which deal mainly with the physical in the treatment of human beings, and substitute those influences which relate more especially to the moral and the mental faculties. On the other hand, the more conservative, having learned from experience how depraved

humanity can become, and how insusceptible, under certain conditions, to these moral influences, watch with jealous eyes any encroachment of plans born of sympathy or charity, upon the domain of legal justice; well knowing that, if from sympathy for the unfortunate, or enlarged bowels of mercies, the punishment of crime shall become less certain, escapes more frequent, or in point of time farther removed from the commission of the offense, harm may result. The purpose of punishment, as now understood, is not to avenge either the state or an aggrieved party, but to reduce crime and empty our jails and prisons; and a criminal law which, in its terms and enforcement, does not tend to this end, does not commend itself to public respect, and should be modified. Public sentiment has, therefore, practically abolished the gallows, and the guillotine, the stocks and the cat, and, as approved by statute law, they will ere long be known only in history.

The experience of those whose vocation is to deal with criminals of different grades, and note the condition of crime, justifies the statement, that crime, as respects the young — young men and boys — is gradually on the increase, an increase disproportionate to growth in population; or, to take the most hopeful view, there certainly is not a decrease in crime, proportioned to growth in intelligence on the part of the masses. This may be accounted for upon a theory other than that of increased depravity, or a depreciation of the deterrent power of the law. Doubtless the speculative tendency of the times, a more prevalent mercenary spirit, the growing conflict between labor and capital, and especially that pernicious sentiment prevalent among the young which degrades honest work, have much to do with this apparent increase of crime, and are to be considered in the adoption of preventive measures: but whatever may be the producing causes, the fact exists, and we are called upon, in behalf of social morals, personal safety, and the good of humanity, to devise a remedy, to bring to bear some power, some influence, which shall stay this onward increasing tide and turn the waters back. The subject is important, then, in that it has to do with important social interests, and the welfare of a large army of citizens of pronounced criminal tendencies.

We need hardly stop now to measure the progress which has been made, or to criticise the different methods of dealing with crimes which history discloses. Accepting it as a fact, that the present penal system is not accomplishing its purpose, and what the world demands,

to wit, the reduction of crime, thinking men and women, men and women loyal to law, and yet with compassionate hearts, are called upon to do that which centuries, by legal force alone, have failed to do.

Penal reform should not be simply an experiment. There are certain principles of humanity, human susceptibility, and political economy, which are elemental, and to be considered in formulating a plan for the reformation of criminals. Nor should it, to receive legislative or social approval, be so radical as to suggest fanaticism.

Law is essentially conservative, and any change resting upon legislative enactment in the treatment of criminals, must, for acceptance, rest upon sound reason, and have an apparent adaptation to the purpose of penal law.

1st. The repression of crime, and

2nd. The ultimate good, the reform of the criminal.

The reform of the criminal has not been a prominent element in the terms of or manner of executing criminal laws; and when any suggestion is made in the modification of penal law, which appears to place the interests or the welfare of the criminal before the peace and safety of society, however much of philanthropy such proposition may contain, it will fail of favorable consideration at the hands of the average legislature.

Punishment, however severe, does not entirely prevent crime, and yet the deterrent effect of punishment is doubtless great; to so strip law of its terror, by making punishment a thing not to be dreaded, would be to defeat the very purpose of every penal statute. Reformation must, therefore, in legal contemplation stand secondary.

No extended research, in the history of this subject, is necessary to convince one that in the management of our prisons, and in the general character of penal laws, there has been a marked improvement in the last century, but this has in the main been the work of philanthropy, and it is doubtful if, with this, there has been any appreciable progress in the reformation of criminals. Outside of a few noted reformatories, of date so modern that their work has scarcely become historical, I doubt if it can be truthfully asserted of the prison system of this country, that it contains a substantial element of reform; and this is not because those persons to whom is entrusted the management of prisons in the execution of the law, are entirely devoid of philanthrophy, or a due appreciation of human needs, nor yet

because philanthropists and Christian workers are excluded.

Philanthropy, religion, Christian endeavor, all have their place, and a very important place, in the treatment of criminals; in fact the power of the Gospel is the mainspring of all successful reformatory effort; but all these standing alone, and unsystematized with a general prison discipline, looking to reform, bear but little fruit (I will not say none) in the reformation of ordinary criminals. There is a popular idea that the only legitimate measures to be used in reforming men, are moral suasion and kindly treatment, and when punishment trespasses upon this rule, it is to that extent unauthorized. I am not here to combat that idea, or in general question the reformatory power of moral suasion, but when this grows to be a sort of namby pamby sentiment, it operates about the same in treating criminals that sugar pills without any mendicament would in the treatment of diseases. When a man commits a crime, he by such act shows himself to be an enemy of society; an enemy of the peace and safety of society: an enemy of the law. He may be more or less confirmed in such enmity, but he has to a certain extent shown himself to be an unsafe person to be at large. Nothing short of a change of character will alter his relation to society, and by that I mean change of purpose: development of manly qualities, so that he shall respect the personal and social rights of others, and respect himself as well; nothing short of this will constitue him a safe member of society. He must in some way be made to understand that he is an enemy of the law, and that for the particular offense committed, society, the dignity and deterrent force of the law, require that its power shall be felt, and respect therefor inspired, by the infliction of the penalty which should be sharp and positive. Men of depraved proclivities are to be made to respect and obey the law, not by moral suasion or argument, but by superior authority, sharply administered. Firm justice is not incompatible with true reform. One of the most potent reformatory incentives is first to make a man realize that it is both unsafe and unprofitable to commit crime, and the first step toward such conviction is apprehension and punishment, sure and immediate. No man ever put forth the requisite effort for a better life, and possessed himself with the power to resist temptation, until made to feel its need and profit. No one can experience this need for him. True reformatory measures, therefore, are such as

tend to convince a man of his deficiency, and then inspire and educate a taste for something better.

Nor does it rest here. The ability to resist temptation when met in life, comes not from a sentiment, nor even from good resolutions alone; it comes from an educated will power. I think I can cite an instance where nearly an entire jail full of prisoners were so wrought upon by the singing of Gospel songs, and by the prayers and exhortations of earnest Christian workers, as to apparently think that they had met with a change of purpose, and perhaps change of heart, when, in fact, it proved to be but little else than freedom from temptation and a change of surrounding influences, and when released from confinement and subjected to the temptations of street life, they lacked character and will to support their good resolutions (if any) and fell. The responsibility is then with the State, in connection with the administration of punishment, to furnish the means and the opportunity for such education. And I may urge, as arguments in favor of such position and a general modification of our penal laws:

First. That it is both the duty and policy of the State to reform its criminal population.

Second. Because the penal laws of the different States are unequal, and cannot therefore have a reasonable adaptation to the offenses to which they severally apply.

Third. Because there is a lack of adaptation of penalties to the moral culpability of subjects.

First, as to the duty and policy of the State to reform its criminal population. The ingratitude of a citizen exhibited in the violation of law, it is sometimes argued, absolves the State from any benevolent consideration of such person. It is true that principles of charity and philanthropy are not expected to enter largely into the composition of penal laws, but it is alike true, that because a man has, under certain circumstances, committed an offense, he does not cease to be a man or a citizen. The State owes it to society, and to its own prosperity, to make society as pure as possible. This is not optional, it is a duty; and this, not simply by its penal laws, but by educational provisions and other means which tend to develop and establish character. To this end the State, by wise laws, preserves the sanctity of the home, provides the common school and the university for the education of the young, and encourages the maintenance of the Christian church. But many of our criminal population never have experienced the influence of a home in the proper sense; they have never

had the benefits of the school, and perchance, have seldom been inside a Christian church, and while the fault, in a measure, may be their own, these benevolent provisions have come short of their appointment in respect to the criminal population in general.

But independent of these personal considerations, the State owes a duty to society in this connection which it has so far failed to discharge.

When one has committed an offense, the State does not, by the ordinary execution of the penal laws, give any assurance to society, that, by the infliction of the penalty, the man, when discharged from custody, will be a safe citizen, better than when incarcerated; experience teaches that the contrary will ordinarily prove true. If a man becomes insane, so as to disturb the peace of society, the State assumes the custody of such person and does what it can to restore reason. But if a man becomes a criminal, equally dangerous to society, the manner of dealing with him by the State is to deprave, rather than to restore and exalt him; not purposely, it is true, but practically such is the result.

At a moderate estimate we may assume that 10,000 persons (in round numbers) are discharged from all the prisons in this country annually, to take their places in society, many or all of them to resume their rights of citizenship; and if we are to include those discharged from all the workhouses, jails and prisons of lower grade, the number will be startling; but these men are not only entitled to exercise the rights of citizenship, to vote and indirectly, at least, to make and execute the laws of the land, but they have a place and exert an influence in moulding the character of, and giving tone to, society. It is this criminal population, distributed through the States (and quite a proportion of whom go west), that are educating, by their influence, a class of our young men, and not infrequently boys and girls, to grow into positive criminals. And possibly here may be one of the producing causes of the increase of crime among the young. Is there not then, resting upon the State, an imperative duty, while it has the custody of this criminal population, whether in prison or workhouse, to bring to bear upon them every possible influence to change their characters, that when released they shall be safer and better citizens than when imprisoned? This is a much wiser economy than the most profitable contract which can be made for service. It is always economy for the State to utilize whatever of capital exists in the person of its citizens. There is great value in an honest man;

in a respectable, industrious citizen; and to transform a worthless vagabond or criminal into such citizen is certainly wise economy.

Second, a modification of our penal laws is demanded because they are grossly unequal. American citizenship is presumably the same in every State and Territory of the Union, and we might reasonably expect to find the same class of crimes treated alike in every State. For the information of those who have not taken the trouble to examine the criminal laws of the different states, permit me to give a few illustrations.

In Alabama and Louisiana arson is punishable with death; in New Jersey it may be by imprisonment any term less than fifteen years; no minimum is fixed; or it may be by fine not exceeding $2,000. In Minnesota it is punished by imprisonment from seven to fourteen years.

Burglary in Louisiana is punished by death; in Alabama by imprisonment from one to twenty years. Supposing a man, under peculiar temptation, commits burglary in Alabama; the mitigating circumstances are such that he receives the lightest penalty which the law allows, which is one year in the penitentiary; after his release he crosses the line into Louisiana, and under like conditions commits the same offense; under all the circumstances, and without any knowledge of the former offense, the court is disposed to give him the lightest punishment which the law permits, and so they hang him. And that man will never be able to tell whether the causes to which this difference in punishment for the same offense is due, is legislative, judicial or climatic. For the same offense in New Jersey a fine of ten dollars would meet the requirements of the law.

Take the crime of forgery. The lightest penalty in Alabama is ten years; in Louisiana it is two years, and in Kentucky and Minnesota it is two years; in New Jersey a fine of one dollar would satisfy the law; and this same difference will be found in respect to many of the laws for the punishment of felonies in the several states. It will be seen from this that there is no attempt to graduate penalties, so that they shall be exactly or reasonably adapted to the gravity of the offense; for the crime is the same in Minnesota as Louisiana, in New Jersey as California; and without determining the relative merits of these different statutes, they appear to be entirely arbitrary in their terms, the degree of severity of each depending more upon the temper of the legislature than upon the nature of the offense. More of harmony could

perhaps be secured by the adoption of a national code, but the same objection would still exist in the administration, unless we could in some way codify the several courts of the country. Except the punishment for a given offense be death, a latitude, often very great, is given to the trial court in pronouncing sentence. Now, while I strenuously maintain that judges are very wise, and good, and some of them very great, they are generally men; men of human qualities, and sometimes of human frailties, and it will always follow that, for the same kind of offense, committed under similar circumstances, the punishment will vary according to the softness or hardness of the judicial heart.

Third. Punishment to be just should have a reasonable adaptation to the moral culpability of the offender. To accomplish this is not the work of legislation: the nearest approach to it is in the exercise of judicial discretion, and to make this at all practical, involves a thorough knowledge of the man, the history of his life, and the ability to analyze his moral powers. Moral culpability reaches beyond the facts disclosed in a criminal trial, and which is the only means for informing the judicial mind. It reaches back to childhood, to boyhood, to home and its surroundings; inherent weakness and tendencies, and great temptations. Human perceptions will never so develop as to be able to read and measure moral culpability; and so the law, in its terms and in its arbitrary execution, will ever lack in adaptation to offenses when measured by the rule of moral culpability.

But while we find no difficulty in pointing out defects in our penal system, to correct these defects and present a system unobjectionable and so reasonable in its terms and assurance of merit, as to meet the approval of legislatures and elicit the confidence of society in practical results, is by no means so easy. I have said that the modification should not be an experiment; that is, it should not be an experiment in the end sought to be accomplished, nor in the agencies or means used for this end; nor need it be, with our knowledge of human nature and our experience as to results produced upon human character by certain influences. The methods to be adopted in making these influences operative, in bringing them so to bear upon the will, the conscience of the criminal population as to produce the best possible results, is in a measure an experiment. In the use of these reformatory agencies the state labors at a great disadvantage, as regards average results, in not being able to select the subject to be treated. In a majority of cases

of adult criminals, and not unfrequently is this true of younger ones, before the state can bring to bear any direct influence, character, such as it is, has been formed, habits have become established, the will has, by indulgence, become weak and often powerless, and it would be a practical impossibility, by the use of any available agency, to recreate the man and fulfill the possibilities of early life, and hence success can never be complete; it will be but partial, but that there can be a *partial* success, such as will fully justify the most liberal effort, cannot be doubted. With us in the west, and this may be alike true in the east and south, the larger proportion of criminals (felons), with which we have to deal, are young men ranging in age from eighteen to twenty-eight years, and with us quite a proportion of these, in fact nearly all of them, prove to be without permanent habitation. They have caught the inspiration of those words of advice, "Go west, young man," but have failed to bring with them that moral capital which insures success.

I feel confident that with proper treatment, from fifty to seventy-five per cent. of these young men can be saved; with our present system, the percentage is very small indeed. In the Reform School of our state, which, like those of other states, is conducted upon reformatory principles alone, of four hundred boys (some of whom had grown to be young men) that had passed through the school and been discharged at a given date, and nearly all of whom had been committed for crime, some of a very grave character, only six have, so far as can be ascertained, ever found their way into state prison — one and a half per cent.; not a larger percentage than would exist in respect to the average boys and young men of a community; and from careful inquiry the superintendent is able to state that at least ninety per cent. of these boys, and he thinks a larger percentage even than this, have never given any farther trouble in any respect after their discharge, and many are known to be honest, prosperous business men, and earnest Christian workers, and their reclamation is doubtless due in a large measure to their treatment, instruction and discipline in the Reform School. We cannot expect so favorable results in dealing with adult criminals, either in workhouse or prison, and yet I feel confident that, with a treatment based upon similar principles, varied only so as to give it an adaptation to age and character of subject, and looking to the same end and expecting like

results, we should be surprised at the large measure of success.

Now, these suggestions are not new, indeed with many they are comparatively old, and yet, in order to give them practical effect, they need to be repeated and emphasized and pressed home upon the public mind, until they shall take form in definite action.

The world is wide awake in suggestions of progress, in everything that is matter of scientific discovery or development; in inventions and devices which give promise of value in the accumulation of wealth; there is no lack of stimulating incentives to labor in all these directions; but of those things which promise a fruitage only in moral progress and social purity, we expect to find laborers mainly with those who love humanity, and are inspired with the same motives which moved the Divine Master as He sought to bless the world by His life. In suggestions of reform in our penal laws, we need the exercise of a practical common sense, which includes a knowledge of humanity and the needs of society, and with this must be coupled a strong under-current of love for humanity always found in works of philanthropy and reform.

I think my paper may be brought to a close with just a word of approval for the indeterminate sentence in all cases where legal penalties are inflicted. It embodies, in general, the elements of penal reform, and admits of the application or use of all recognized reformatory agencies. By its adoption, is also removed the objections referred to, in respect to the marked difference in the laws of this country, for the punishment of crime, and the want of adaptation of arbitrary penalties to moral culpability.

Under this system, a man who has committed a crime is considered an enemy of the law and to society, and no longer safe to be at large in his then present condition. The state, therefore, takes him in hand: first, for the protection of society, and, second, for personal treatment. He is to be dealt with as a reasoning being, and so far as his qualities of mind will justify, as a reasonable being. The end to be accomplished in his reformation requires that the length of treatment each person shall receive will depend upon the degree of depravity, and the mental and moral susceptibility of the subject, and all these will, of course, determine the period of confinement. To suppose that the indeterminate sentence is adapted only to the punishment of felonies, is an error; it should be adopted in all the reform schools, workhouses, houses of correction, and in short, the penal in-

stitutions of every grade in the land. To send a man to the stone pile ten days for drunkenness, only sharpens his appetite for drink when released. Short sentences for any offense, whether felony or misdemeanor, are to be disapproved, as their effect is to degrade and never to reform; every consideration, both of public policy, economy and personal benefit are opposed to it in principle. No populous community should be without its workhouse, established and operated upon this plan, and in sparsely settled counties the work should be done by the state, by the construction and management of state institutions, each to serve a district large or small, in proportion to population. This is destined to solve, so far as solveable, the vexed tramp question, which periodically so disturbs society. In our reform schools, work-houses and prisons, the spirit of penal reform must be planted and developed. We cannot afford to make mistakes, for mistakes retard the progress of all reforms; advancement must be by steps, the wisdom of each of which must be assured before taken.

I wish, before closing, to refer very briefly to the matter of employment in connection with prison discipline, to which too little consideration has been given. Skilled labor, skilled employment is found to be a very efficient preventive against crime, and it may also be made to serve as an antidote where the poisonous effects of crime are present. There is that in skilled mechanism, which more than any other physical means, furnishes a reasonable guaranty against crime. Without stopping to verify this proposition by available evidence, I want to say that effect should be given to it, first as a preventive measure, by making it a part of our educational system and second, by giving it prominence in criminal reform; in the latter case it is educational, and serves also to fortify against repetition, by its direct effect, and by furnishing a means of subsistence after release. Variety should also be given to the trades taught, having in view the elevating influence of the kind of employment adopted, and the capacity of the individual. There is a marked difference in the moral effect of mechanical trades. I once heard a warden say that for the good of the prison he was obliged to take them out of the foundry of the contractor, because of the demoralizing influence of the citizen operatives. Some other mechanical trades may be open to criticism in this respect. More consideration should therefore be given to the moral influence of the employment, than to the profitableness to the State. The principle of compensatory service is not

unjust to the criminal, but if by the contract system, or from considerations of relative profit, it is practiced at the expense of true reform, it is both unjust, and in the end will prove unprofitable.

And then after the faithful application of all available reformatory influences, which I need not stop to enumerate in detail, release from restraint must be gradual, and finally from imprisonment, conditional. Confinement and release must be made to overlap each other, so that where the one ends, and the other begins, shall not be marked by any abrupt line. It is dangerous, even to good resolutions, to precipitate a man from a state of absolute restraint into unconditional freedom. A man's strength of will, power of resistance, ability to withstand temptation, are to be tested and applied in such manner, and by such degrees, as to give assurance of success in their use, before he is left entirely to himself; and then follows that supervisory care on the part of the State referred to in another paper.

I would not, in what I have said, be understood as advocating the entire abolition of prisons proper for the imprisonment of chronic and incorrigible criminals. But by the application of judicious reformatory measures, in all proper cases, these prisons will gradually diminish in number and in requisite capacity.

REFORMATION OF CRIMINAL GIRLS.

BY MISS E. A. HALL.

The reformation of criminal girls is no longer a doubtful experiment. The possibility of restoring them is being proven in Connecticut, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan and other states, under State authority.

If it is possible, then all reasonable effort to this end ought to be made. "Go and sin no more," said Christ. The conclusion is plain. The reasons for reformatory work for girls are many. "What can one give in exchange for his soul?" puts an inestimable value upon it.

Hence, every girl's soul is worth saving.

No one doubts the propriety of large efforts to save a boy. A girl may do a much greater amount of harm in the world, hence political economy dictates that as great efforts should be made to rescue her.

The voice of humanity demands that girls be given a fair chance; be redeemed from destruction and the power

of destroying, and be developed to useful womanhood. If they are law-breakers, restrain them by law; make them obedient to it, and strive to discover the true means of renewing their nature.

In view of the importance to society of the care, training, and elevation of degraded girls, the wonder to me is, that the world has been so slow in recognizing it.

Take it in its length, breadth, and depth of influence, there is no work that would seem able to produce such large results, or, for the investment, return so large a dividend.

I judge, the important question to consider and evolve to-day is not — "Is it possible to reform them?" or, "Does it pay?" But, how can it be done? What are the best and surest methods to use in reformatory work? How can we secure the highest results? Common sense and philosophy indicate, that the most successful remedies for moral diseases are those which antidote the cause. Prevent the development of criminal tendencies when possible. Such tendencies are overcome by whatever cultivates self-control.

Intemperate appetites may be subdued or controlled by appropriate diet, medical treatment, instruction, and moral elevation. Intense natures are regulated by exercise and occupation of mind, unstimulating food, and regular habits. Vagrant impulses must be met by influences which inspire a love for home, as the possession of a neat, pretty room of one's own to decorate at pleasure, the society of good women who have faith in them, in the midst of proper books and papers, flowers, pictures, music and home industries. These create a desire for a permanent home, with good upright friends and all that pertains to it.

Philanthropists and the best educators, broadly looking to the elevation of our race, seek a harmonious development of the entire being; the mind in every department, the physical in every limb and muscle, and the moral and spiritual nature. That which is weakest and lacks most, receives the largest share of attention.

The over-developed organ is restrained by the culture of others less prominent. An equal development of each organ and element of character is sought that the Divine image may be restored. On this broad principle we should build plans, and organize methods for the reformation of criminal girls. This principle should underlie and pervade the entire organization, which has in view this object, should enter into the selection of the location, the system and style of structure, the interior and exte-

rior arrangements, conveniences, adornments and surroundings, into its regulations, requirements, restraints, recreations, industries and entire training. All principles, which pertain to the securing of a well-balanced mind, and sound body, relate to this of reformation.

An educator seeks to discover what is attainable; how broad and complete an education is possible, inquires what is necessary to secure it, what obstacles are to be overcome, what deficiencies supplied, and then forms his curriculum of study and work, and shapes his methods and requirements to attain the desired results. The more perfect the education desired, the more thorough must be the work, and complete the arrangements to secure it. A criminal condition indicates an unbalanced, abnormal, ill-developed nature and disposition. What are the causes of this criminal condition? A consideration of these causes will show the obstacles to be removed and the deficiencies to be supplied.

Look at the facts in the history of criminal girls. In the Michigan Industrial Home for Girls, for example, one-seventh of the number received to date had insanity in their parentage; one-third had criminality in their parentage; two-thirds had intemperance; five-sevenths are either orphans or half orphans; one-eighth were deserted by one or both parents. This, where the average age of those received is thirteen years.

Those inheriting a tendency to insanity have strong passions, bad tempers and tastes, disordered, irritable nerves, and general unreliableness. These traits show a periodicity in their recurrence, which needs to be anticipated by protection and wise treatment, supplying whatever conditions promote good health, intelligence and self-control, thus preventing further wrong development, with the hope of cure.

There are those who inherit an intemperate appetite, or have acquired it by bad example and influence. Associated with these are other evil inclinations for which their parents are largely responsible. Their disordered, broken homes, their orphanage, desertion and helplessness account for a large portion of their criminality. Lack of education and of skill in any industry or sufficient means of support, when needed, opens wide the door of temptation to sin. False aims and ideas of life imparted by foolish and indifferent parents and teachers, loose fiction and vile literature, betrayals and sham marriages, degradedness of parents and relatives cause the criminality of many girls.

A careful study of the history of the girls thus far re-

ceived at the Michigan Industrial Home, shows that seven-eighths of them were the victims of circumstances beyond their control, and the readiness with which a majority of them have yielded to good and wholesome influences, and improved the opportunities given them there, increases one's faith in the possibilities of girls, and makes one willing to devote herself to the work of rescuing them. Many a young girl's history is truly pitiable, and awakens one's deepest sympathy, and strengthen's an earnest purpose to protect and aid those who have had no protection, and no proper care or training.

The reformation of criminal girls is, then, a process of education with more than ordinary difficulties and obstacles to be overcome, but with a fair hope of success. These difficulties and obstacles are not only inherent in the subject to be educated, but in the conditions of society; in the lack of faith of the public mind, and the agencies in the world on the side of evil.

Let us consider some of the requisites to success in reformatory efforts.

FIRST — LAW.

The power to control by legal authority. "Law is the power behind the throne." It secures the time and control necessary to the physician in order to heal the patient. These are essential to effect a cure in all chronic diseases.

Indefiniteness of sentence is a requisite in order that the subject's mind may be held to the work of education and training. I believe that if the girls between seven and eighteen years of age, of criminal tendencies, or actual criminal practices, were committed by the courts of justice under an indefinite, or essentially indefinite sentence, to the care and training of a well located, properly built, rightly organized and justly managed State Industrial Home, or school for them, a very large majority of them would become honorable, useful women, and all would be improved, so that the question of economy, interest and propriety would be lost in the manifest importance of the cause. They are ignorant, they are weak by inheritance, but they want to be true women. They have been neglected, they are discouraged.

There is much of sentiment and pity in the public mind that a young girl should be committed to a reformatory and thus a stain be brought upon her name, a mark put upon her for life. It is not the sentence of the law that fixes the mark or blot, it is the "dark passage in life," the act, the soiled, seamed and scarred

mind, before the law reaches out its hand to rescue that is to be regretted and should be prevented.

Build and conduct reformatories on the principle of a thoroughly harmonious development of the entire being, and the results will be such that in time public sentiment will become educated and the odium will disappear from the name.

SECOND — LOCATION.

A reformatory should be located in one of the best portions of the state; best as regards intelligence, morality, benevolence and public spirit of the people. A region of cultivated, fruitful soil, pleasant and beautiful to look upon, accessible to a city, that its market and other advantages may be enjoyed; not within the city or too near to suffer from its annoyances; not too far away, isolated or inconvenient. There should be sufficient grounds to be able to control the surroundings and approaches, and that the necessary buildings be not crowded together; to furnish some opportunities to cultivate the soil; also for recreation and outdoor exercise. There should be an abundant supply of pure water, for the purposes of food and drink, cleanliness, steam and fire protection; and good, unfailing drainage.

Healthfulness is a quality of vital importance in a location. A more or less diseased body accompanies or precedes diseased morals. The condition of the body must be improved before the mind and morals are reached. Hence, secure pure atmosphere and good surroundings.

THIRD.—BUILDINGS.

The building of a Reformatory should be eminently adapted to the purpose; convenient to economize in the number, time, labor and strength of officers; constructed, finished and furnished in an enduring but simple manner, that they may easily be kept in perfect order.

Ventilation should be complete; warmth sufficient; sunlight and cheerfulness abundant.

Insure security by the least noticeable, and yet effectual means, that the thought of possible escape may be prevented. It is best to provide against temptation from within and without the buildings.

Having had experience in each of the three systems of construction, congregate, cottage, and family, we certainly prefer the strictly family plan.

The family should not be too large; I would have but thirty in a family; better results are obtained, propor-

tionally, if the families are not large, especially with the more difficult girls.

The family plan secures better separation; hence prevention. It offers opportunity for a more thorough domestic training, and for individual attention to a far larger proportion of the entire number of girls, than either of the other systems. True home and family life which most criminal girls have not had, can be more nearly approximated.

The family system admits of more thorough grading than any other. The girls are of various grades when received into any institution. A portion readily yield themselves to the regulations, influences, and curative processes of the Institution receiving them, therefore, less time is required to fit them to return to society. Others, less easily influenced, or having more to overcome and acquire, necessarily require longer discipline.

FOURTH.— GRADING.

Separation, or classification as to character and moral qualifications, is highly important, as it tends to prevent the girls becoming worse by association with those more vicious, and gives a hopeful stimulus to right endeavor. There is encouragement and hope in the knowledge that continued good conduct brings promotion, step by step and final release; liberty with an informed mind, skilled hands, and preparation for an honorable womanhood.

FIFTH — INDUSTRIES.

Another essential factor in the means for reform is industrial training. Girls, as a rule, are not instructed at home in domestic and other industries as they ought to be. Homeless girls are even more negelcted in this respect.

Criminal girls are accused of disliking to work. This is because they have not been properly instructed. Their lack of knowledge brings discouragement, then dislike or indifference, and makes them an easy prey to vicious influences. Hence, thorough industrial instruction and training should take a prominent place in the organization of a Reformatory. I would first institute a system of thorough domestic training, after the most approved methods, adopting a rotary system of work in each family; thus giving each girl a good insight into all the details belonging to the good keeping of a house.

By requiring a month or two at a time in each depart-

ment, it may also be discovered what each girl may be best fitted to do, and how she can most successfully maintain herself, and special help be given her in that direction.

It is nearly or quite as important that a young girl should be able to make her own clothing as to keep a house. Instruction in plain sewing, by hand and machine, dress-making, cutting, and fitting and knitting should be given; also in any kind of needle work that will aid in giving constant and varied occupation.

Girls must be taught to mend as well as to make. To darn and make over garments, thus practicing proper economy. First, require good, smooth work, then rapidity and a reasonable amount. Animation and energy while at work are necessary to make an industry interesting. There is an inspiration in machinery. I have frequently found that a sewing or knitting machine interested, subdued, then controlled waywardness, so that an exceedingly trying girl became a neat, industrious seamstress and a good girl.

Again, sewing by hand in the solitude of her own room for a succession of days has enabled an irritable, unreliable girl to acquire self control, or, at least, avoid the recurrence of paroxysms of temper, requiring severe discipline.

Gardening or some out-door work is good for girls who have an excess of vitality. Whatever the industries are which are introduced in an institution, they should be carefully adapted to the pupils under instruction, should aim to keep them thoroughly busy, and fit them for self-support, and should bring more or less returns to the treasury of the institution. This encourages thrift.

While the girls are acquiring skill in the departments of needle work, much can be done to cultivate a proper taste in dress and appearance. It is no more difficult to have well-fitted, neatly made garments to clothe girls being reformed than to have ill-fitting ones. It aids reform, and they are protected when returned to society by having a cultivated taste in dress.

SIXTH — SCHOOL.

Equally important it is that the mind should be informed. A large per cent. of criminal girls can neither read nor write. Another large portion can read or write but poorly. The education of the remainder is very unsystematic, and their knowledge indefinite, hence regular hours for daily study and school work, are essential, with systematic instuction as in the best

graded schools, in at least the common branches. Ignorance must be supplanted by intelligence, to secure permanent reformation.

The daily drill of the school room aids also in the general discipline, and cultivates self-control. If special attention should be given to any branch of study, it should be to that of reading; as so few read intelligently, that to read is an irksome task instead of a pleasant and profitable recreation.

It is surprising to see the readiness with which they are interested in carefully and properly selected papers and books, after they can read understandingly.

To control and improve criminal girls they need to be actively busy; school and industry alternating, with brief, regular seasons of recreation interspersed. The idle mind reverts to old and familiar thoughts, then bad words and acts follow.

We must pre-occupy the thoughts with good. Illustrated papers and books should be convenient; suggestive mottos, texts, and pictures on the walls where they often catch the eye, are voiceless instructors. Music has a most subtle influence. Let me hear the songs, or snatches of songs, a girl naturally sings, and I can tell you her history and her heart. Teach to sing well, correctly, and with expression. Teach good national songs, and new, sweet, helpful, prayerful songs, supported by a clear-toned instrument. There is a wonderfully controling, inspiring power in music. Move to the time of music as much as possible, and in a spirited, military manner. Drill with music to an erect carriage, with quick, even step. It cultivates self-respect.

The months you have the most frequent, general practice in music you will have the best records and the least disciplining. Good music has incalculable power. Spiritual songs are often, unconsciously to the girls; "the Sword of the Spirit." Through them the truth searches the inmost recesses of the heart and the thoughts, and without invitation subdues and elevates.

To secure permanent reformation we must establish right principles. These are the necessary underlying power and the crowning influence. In their family and school life the girls must receive "line upon line, and precept upon precept," as do children in the purest homes.

The word of God must be opened to them daily in a practical manner, and be the inspiration of every day's duties. Gradual spiritual growth must be sought without cant or fanaticism. Seek steady, firm progress out

of the darkness of vice, ignorance and skepticism, into the light of knowledge and faith.

Strive to invest them with "the whole armor of God," that they may be "strong in the Lord and in the power of his might," hence, "able to stand against the wiles of the devil," and to "with-stand in the evil day."

Lead them to watch and pray perseveringly as they work.

To this end the officers in charge of criminal girls should be women of education, experience, principle, prudence, purity, faculty, keenness, courage, and faith in the possible reformation of every girl in their care, spiritual women, with strong, motherly gifts, thoroughly practical, enthusiastic without being fanatical, not those weighted with a "mission," but earnest, progressive, just women, who study the heart and read the motives, as taught by the Holy Spirit, whose faith is a spiritual eye, whose patience is without limit, and whose determination rises above discouragement or doubt.

All girls, but especially weak ones, need a good, upright, courageous friend. These officers should be led by one clothed with authority as superintendent, possessing these gifts and characteristics pre-eminently. A competent, versatile executive, a "perfect woman nobly planned," having the confidence and hearty support of the controlling board of managers and admitted to their councils.

Then briefly, to reform criminal girls, I would locate carefully, erect buildings on a graded family system, and obtain sufficient time and control by indefinite sentence of law, to educate harmoniously body, mind, and conscience, by industries, school work, reading, family life, and spiritual instruction. Every thought and effort of the institution, in each department, should be to thoroughly inform and improve the girls, to impart and establish sound principles and develop conscience.

In conclusion allow me to state a few facts concerning my own school. The law establishing the State Industrial Home for Girls of Michigan, provides for the reception of girls over the age of seven and under the age of seventeen years, convicted by the courts, of offenses not punishable by imprisonment for life, to remain in the custody of the Home until they reach the age of twenty-one years, and authorizing the Board of Control to reduce their time for good conduct, or, in their discretion, to bind out, return to guardians, or place in care of a resident of the State with sufficient sureties for good be-

havior and care, these wards of the state to be returned to the Home if they break their trust or do not improve.

Our law requires the family plan of buildings, thorough systematic teaching of all domestic industries, the proper physical, intellectual and moral training of the inmates. The general supervision and government of the Home is vested in a Board of Control, consisting of three women and two men appointed by the Governor.

An eminently healthful and beautiful site was selected near the city of Adrian. It consists of ninety-two acres of choice farming lands, fifteen of which are covered by a beautiful grove. It is well adapted to the purpose. The original farm house is at present the Administration building. We have erected four brick cottages, a chapel, with school rooms attached, and an engine house. These cottages may each accommodate thirty-four girls; are convenient and home-like, with little of the usual institution appearance. A fifth and larger cottage is being erected.

There are four grades. When a new girl is received, she is usually placed in the second or reception grade. Her history is taken by the Superintendent. The rules are explained to her. She is informed that obedience, efforts to improve, industry and good conduct insure promotion to a higher grade with more privileges and an earlier release on trust and final liberty; that disobedience, willfulness and persistent ill-conduct degrade her to the lowest or first grade, with more restraint and less privileges, and longer period of discipline. The third grade will doubtless be largest as to numbers, and will contain more of the younger girls, and those committed for larceny and minor offenses. The fourth is the Honor grade, the home of the best girls. The older girls of this cottage are being especially trained and fitted to go by ticket of leave to places of service for which they receive reasonable wages, one-fourth or one-third of which is reserved and placed in a savings bank, quarterly for their benefit. We give special attention to domestic industry, and have a rotary system of work in each family.

The girls usually remain a month in a department, and are required to take their turn in each. Thus they become instructed in general housework, and we discover what they are naturally best fitted to do, and in time are able to give them special opportunities in the direction of their choice. By example and precept and rule they are taught economy, and that work is honorable and becoming a true woman. Girls who have never

worked before being received at the Home, have learned to love house work, to prefer this industry and have become proficient in it, have grown to feel that honest labor is honorable when well done, and in the right spirit. Others excel in laundry work, still others have developed a real genius at needle work, knitting and straw work.

We have a department of sewing separate from the cottages, to which girls are detailed from each cottage, and receive special instructions from a competent teacher in plain sewing, dressmaking, cutting and fitting, five and a half hours a day. We have knitting machines and all stockings for the family are made by the girls.

There are three officers in each cottage. The cottage manager has a general supervision of the cottage and is chiefly responsible for its discipline and management; and has special charge of the cottage sewing room.

The teacher has the care and instruction of girls detailed for chamber work, care of the distribution of clothing, the instruction and training in school and a portion of the evening study hours. The housekeeper instructs the girls appointed for dining room, kitchen and laundry work, and is responsible for these departments. General duties are shared by the officers.

Since the opening of our school, August 1st, 1881, the entire number of girls received is	143
Returned to the court which sent them	2
Died	2
Placed at service on trust by "ticket of leave"	11
Present at the Home	128

These at date are graded as follows:

First, or lowest grade	29
Second, or reception grade	32
Third grade	35
Honor grade	32
Average number received per month	6
Average age when received	13

Our school work occupies from two o'clock to five each afternoon, when the girls assemble in their respective school-rooms in the chapel building. The lowest grade occupies an isolated room. The other departments are seated, each cottage in its own room, but are graded together for class recitation. As a rule, the girls make excellent progress and enjoy the school. In addition to instruction in the common branches, we have lasses in history and physiology, and one class studying

the text-book of Household Economy, published by the New York Kitchen Garden Association, which we find exceedingly beneficial. A profitable hour is spent each evening in study at the cottages, preparing lessons for the following day. If I may be allowed, I will quote from my last report as to our records and religious instruction:

"The daily debit and credit account kept with each as to her demeanor, industry and study, is a simple mark system; three being the highest number of debits or credits in each department, and nine the greatest number possible each day. The settlement of accounts at the close of the month, when the footings are read to the girls and balances given, are marked periods, often turning-points in the lives of our pupils. Upon these records and balances promotions are based, or the necessity is established of placing a girl in a lower grade.

This mark system has a very important and definite influence in the management of our Institution.

It is an instrument as delicate to handle as a barometer. Officers must be just and make true records, and yet so charitable as not to discourage feeble effort for improvement, or over-irritate the unbalanced mind."

"Our religious instruction is of a very quiet, earnest, and practical kind, entirely unsectarian.

We gather from the Bible principles of truth, honesty, purity, and God-likeness, the wisdom of dependence upon God hourly, for strength to resist temptation and sin; the fatal consequences of wrong-doing, the beauty and profit of right-doing and of a changed life, and the present need of a Savior."

"The many beautiful songs sung in cottage and chapel, the well-chosen book read, or story related, and timely words of advice, the responsive exercises, prayer and practical instruction combine to work out the important results which are manifest in the earnest efforts for improvement and in the obdient daily lives of many of our girls."

CAPT. PATTERSON, of Ohio: I have been delighted this morning in listening to these three papers, to which I have paid close attention. I would be glad if they could be published in the daily papers, and have a wide circulation throughout the land. I heartily indorse all that my brother and co-laborer, Mr. Brockway, has said. I

do not know that I can go quite as far as he does. I am a younger man than Mr. Brockway is, in prison work, and he has given the subject close and thorough attention. The subject of the punishment of crime, and of convict labor, is a very wide one, and not yet exhausted. There has been no system yet presented for the working of criminals which will meet the approbation of the public. The clamor of the world is for the abolition of the contract system, under which we in Ohio are laboring. To my mind it is one thing to find fault with and tear down a system, but it is quite another to build up a new one. Our last legislature appointed a committee to examine into this whole subject, and if they found the present system inoperative or incorrect, to remedy it. I I do not know that the commission appointed will be able to suggest remedies, and correct the defects in the present system. All men admit, everywhere, that the criminal should be reformed. I think we all are agreed as to that. But I cannot see how putting out the man to labor for the benefit of another man will reform him. And yet there is a harmony in that system that is found in no other. Mr. Brockway touched upon that in his paper. There is a harmony in a prison where the labor of the prisoners is contracted out. But I think that the true object of imprisonment is the moral reformation of the criminal. We should be governed by a higher motive than the desire to make the prisoner self-supporting.

As to the other systems proposed, one is the State Account System. That is, the state buys the raw material and the prisoners manufacture it into whatever is desired. I am myself in favor of that system, and yet there are a great many difficulties connected with it. It requires very complicated organization, and when the head of the institution changes with every change of a new Governor, as is the case in a great many states, the result is bad. To carry on a prison on the state account

plan requires a man with a very large head, of great ability. It is a difficult system to administer. When it is known that the political administration will change every two or three years, it is hard to get a man of the requisite ability, because none care to occupy the position of warden for such a short time. The warden no sooner becomes thoroughly acquainted with his business than he has to give it up. Now as to the piece-price plan. I think that there is a distinction without a difference between the contract system and the piece-price plan. The difference is hard to see. If I contract out the labor of the prison, you call it the contract system. If the same individual contracts for the same labor on the piece-price plan, it seems to me that it is the contract plan still. There is this difference that on the piece-price plan, the individual is paid what he earns whether it be ten or fifty cents. If the labor of the prison is contracted out to one individual for a given amount, then the individual prisoner receives no more credit if he is capable of earning sixty cents than if he only earned twenty. I therefore think that the piece-price plan is to this extent and for this reason the best, and that it will commend itself to the public. It seems to me to be most likely to satisfy the clamor of the labor element outside, who are clamoring for the abolition of the contract system.

Judge Young treated of another subject, which, to my mind, was clearly set forth. That was the inequality of sentences in different states for the same offenses. If a man commits murder, it is murder, and if he commits highway robbery, it is highway robbery, and it seems strange that in one state he should receive a ten years' sentence, and in another, for the same offense, a two years' sentence, depending largely upon the temperament of the judge. I have great respect for the judges as upright men. But in my town it is a common thing

for one man to be fined five dollars and thirty days for a plain drunk, and another for the same offense, fifty dollars and sixty days. I think that if one man is sentenced for ten years for the same offense for which another has been sentenced for two years, injustice is done. Men who are thus hardly dealt with by the law, do not yield easily to discipline.

Mr. VAUX: The paper that my friend, Mr. Brockway, read this morning, demands much serious consideration at the hands of the Conference; so it would hardly be wisdom for me to attempt to criticise it now. I desire merely to make two remarks in regard to that paper. So far as my limited knowledge upon the subject goes, I cordially indorse all that Mr. Brockway said upon the philosophy of the subjects of which he treated, but there is one point upon which I disagree with him. The most prevalent doctrine now is that ignorance and intemperance produce crime. I do not agree with Mr. Brockway that when a person has become a convict and been committed to a prison, then is the time to begin to give him what is called education. I assert here, before this audience to-day, that of all the convicts who have been in the prisons with which I have been connected, seventy per cent. of them had what is called a common school education.

With regard to the paper of Judge Young, he seems to have given considerable consideration to the different punishments fixed by different states for the same crime. With the most profound respect for the eminent jurist, I say that is a subject with which we have nothing to do. Localities regulate that, and what might really be a greater crime when committed in one place would be less when perpetrated elsewhere. Time never has been an element in punishment. If a man is put in the penitentiary for ten months, he is as much punished as if he were put there for ten years. Sixty years would not

punish him more. The judge is then to make distinctions according to circumstances. A person who has committed an offense for the first time requires different treatment from an old offender. A number of convicts, between twenty and forty years of age, who come to the penitentiaries for crime, are mentally diseased at the time they are convicted; it is astonishing when you come to look through these prisons. Crime runs in families. I remember the case of a young man of about twenty, who was in our institution serving his third sentence for the third offense; and his father and mother had both been in the lunatic asylum; also a sister. What can we do with such cases?

Now in regard to labor. Of all the abominations under the sun, the contract labor system, in my judgment, is the worst; there is nothing in it to recommend it, except that it may be economical; but I do not believe that any State would desire to make money at the expense of its convicts. When a person is confined, the State becomes, as it were, a parent to him, and surely it is the desire of every good parent to raise his children so as to be a credit to him rather than to make profit out of them. In our institution, we manufacture goods and sell them, and the party who gets the goods has no more to do with their manufacture than you or I, who are six hundred miles away. We do make the prisoner understand that labor is a part of his punishment. We teach him to look upon it as a part of the discipline required for his reformation. When a prisoner begins to realize that, when his time is out and he goes back to society, he will have acquired a means of earning an honest livelihood, we have made a better man of him, and if he returns to his dishonest practices he is no worse than when he first came. And another thing. How little you understand the circumstances that drive men to pauperism and crime. Where a man is dependent

upon steady daily employment, a week's idleness almost means no home. With the bitterness of poverty staring him in the face, a man will do that from which in comfortable circumstances he would shrink with horror. Under such circumstances, will anyone contend that such a man should be as severely punished as the hardened criminal, who coolly contemplates his crime and prepares for it? When he goes home, where there is nothing, and his wife meets him with upbraidings made bitter by the situation, what can he do?

You cannot undertake to do with her as you do with a man. You must treat her in a certain way. She becomes violent. Where does he go? Some other place than such a home, for that pity and comfort that he should receive at home, and in such a case he is ready to do anything. Is not this an element in crime-cause?

Mrs. Spencer protested against the last remarks of the speaker as an imputation upon her sex.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

SIXTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, September 26, 1883.

The report from New Jersey was presented by the chair in the absence of the delegates from that state.

REPORT FROM NEW JERSEY.

BY A. S. MEYRICK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Charitable and Correctional Institutions of New Jersey, have not changed in character or management in any marked degree since the meeting of the National Conference at Madison last year, at which a pretty full report of their condition was presented. The number of convicts in the State Prison, and of inmates of the Reform Schools and State Lunatic Asylums, has not greatly increased during the year, and no additions have been made of any great importance to the buildings of either. The over-crowding at the State Prison — the number of convicts greatly exceeding that of the cells provided for their reception, still continues; successive legislatures having turned deaf ears to the appeals of the officers of the prison whose administration of its discipline is rendered difficult and sometimes dangerous by the necessity of putting in many cases, two to four prisoners in one cell, as well as to the occasional recommendations of the Governor of the state, and the earnest remonstrances of philanthropic citizens, in spite of all which this blot upon the prison system of New Jersey remains.

The partial revival of business has enabled the prison officers to reduce considerably the number of unemployed convicts, but fully one hundred able-bodied men are most of the time maintained in idleness at the expense of the tax payers of the state. This is entirely the effect of the law passed by the legislature of 1881, limiting the number of convicts to be employed at any one branch of industry to one hundred. Only by a very liberal construction of this law, making the manufacture of shirts, collars and cuffs, collar boxes and laundrying distinct industries, has it been possible to secure contracts for much more than half the available labor of the prison. A single firm by thus subdividing its business

being enabled to contract for the employment of a possible four hundred men. The loss to the state has been over $40,000 yearly, as a single manufacturing company of the highest responsibility was ready and anxious to contract for the whole available working force of the prison, at rates from ten to fifteen cents per day higher than the smaller operators,. on whose bids the prison officers have been obliged to fall back, can afford to pay. And the prison shops, and store rooms for manufactured goods and raw materials, which would have been ample for the employment of more than six hundred men under one contractor, are scarcely sufficient for four hundred and fifty under separate concerns, so that the Governor in his message to the last legislature was obliged to recommend the building of large shops and store rooms, in order to make it possible to employ the men who are idle for lack of room to work.

This particularly brilliant piece of legislation was followed this year by the enactment of another law, requiring all goods manufactured in the prison to be stamped or branded conspicuously "Manufactured in the State Prison of New Jersey." Most of the goods being sold to jobbers who have their own names and trade marks stamped on them and sell them as their own manufacture, the existing contracts are not at all likely to be renewed at their expiration, and unless the state can reach other means of employing the convicts, it is nearly certain to have them idle upon its hands. These laws were concessions to the clamor against convict competition with free labor, which seems destined at no distant day to banish every kind of productive labor from our penal institutions.

THE ASYLUM FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB

at Trenton is nearly completed, and will soon go into operation, enabling the State to provide for a considerable number of its unfortunate children whom it has hitherto been necessary to send to institutions in other states. Handsomely located, easy of access, carefully planned, and arranged for the comfort and convenience of its inmates, there is good reason for expecting it to compare favorably with similar asylums anywhere.

During last year, the first attempt was made to collect by legal authority the STATISTICS OF THE JAILS OF NEW JERSEY, of which no one in the state had previously been able to form any intelligent estimate. The Bureau of Labor Statistics prepared registers and forms of return for each jail in the state, and was able to report with

some approximation to accuracy the number, age, sex, color, date of commitment and discharge, social condition, cause of commitment and other details of the person confined in our jails during the six months preceding October 1, 1882, and expects with good reason to give much more and more reliable information in its report for the year now closing.

From the data supplied by it, it appears that in the six months mentioned, there were 7,533 commitments to the jails of the State of which 5,851 were males, 1,230 females and 321 under sixteen years of age.

Of these, 599 had been committed once previously, 503 twice, 259 three times, 221 four times, 121 five times and 467 six or more times.

Twelve hundred and thirty-four claimed to be "temperate," 1908 "moderate drinkers," and 1,957 "intemperate."

In only two of the county jails in the State was there any kind of systematic employment for the prisoners, and the earnings of neither of these were scarcely appreciable, compared to their cost.

THE JAIL SYSTEM OF NEW JERSEY

is, therefore, to be described as herding together in gross promiscuity during the day, criminals of all the lower grades, tramps, thieves and vagabonds generally with children of tender years; not unfrequently with vile women, in idleness and instruction in all manner of indecency, immorality and degradation. It is to this system that we commit lads who have been guilty of a single petty offense. It is to associations of this kind that we sent last year considerably more than six hundred boys and girls, less than sixteen years of age, of whom only about one hundred found their way, after some weeks of saturation in vile associations, to the two Reform Schools. These jails — the hotels and chosen resorts of tramps and vagabonds — are the principal means provided by the laws of New Jersey for the punishment and prevention of minor offenses. We place the novice in guilt or vice in the enforced companionship of old and hardened sinners for periods varying from a few days to several months, and after getting him thoroughly familiar with the evil, and *all* the evil his associates can teach him, we turn him loose, here in New Jersey, and bid him "go and sin no more." Is it wonderful that he prefers rather to execute the villainy we have so carefully taught him, and with his self-respect, his honor, his lingering remnants of humanity

all crushed out by this abominable system, becomes a public nuisance or a public danger?

Thanks to our Bureau of Statistics, we have begun to learn something of the extent of the clientage of our "training schools of crime." Let us hope that once knowing them, we may set about their cure.

But here, also, the cry against convict competition confronts us and defeats our efforts. The remedy for the jail is the work-house, and every work-house in which prisoners are made to earn a part or the whole of the cost of their support, is, or will be, a competing element in the great mass of productive labor, and therefore, must be opposed, as prison reforms are opposed, by the same parties and for the same reasons. We can have no thorough reform of either prison or jail without productive labor, and productive labor is the one thing which the Labor Reformers are determined to banish from our penal institutions, and therefore, until these very earnest and ardent advocates of the rights of labor can be made to realize that convict competition, whether great or small, can best be extinguished by diminishing crime, and that crime is attacked most effectually by drying up its sources, and destroying its training schools, of which the jails are by far the most effective and certain, the jails of New Jersey must continue to disgrace us.

IN HER TREATMENT OF PAUPERS,

New Jersey has little more reason for complacency than in that of her minor offenders. The poor laws of the state remain almost as they were a hundred years ago. Each township votes at its annual town meeting a certain sum "for the support of the poor," and elects an "Overseer of the Poor," to look after its paupers, who is under the supervision of the Township Committee. Any county may, either by itself or in conjunction with one or more of its neighbors, establish a poor-house, and provide farms or shops for the occupancy of its poor; and each township has the same privilege. Many of the rural townships have preferred to "bond," or "farm" out their poor, sometimes under the Overseer himself; often among the farmers of the community, who keep one or more of them for their labor, supplemented by a small sum weekly or monthly from the township funds. There are no statistics of pauperism, and no means of getting any have been provided by law. The Overseer of the township poor reports, or should report, to the township committee. The committee should report to the people. But both duties are undertaken in most cases by men

with no special aptitude — generally, indeed, with a special inaptitude for thorough work. The county institutions being larger and more costly, receive some attention. Those of the townships are quietly ignored by even the very best citizens, and no one can tell the number even of the poor-houses in the state, or give any reasonable idea of the location of one in twenty of them. Under such circumstances supervision is difficult and abuses easy. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, with praiseworthy energy and zeal, has attempted during the present year to collect facts and figures with regard to New Jersey pauperism, but up to this date has not met with all the encouragement and success its efforts deserve.

The legislature, near the close of its last session, passed an act to provide for the creation of

A COUNCIL OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS,

composed of six members, to be appointed by the Governor, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate," and presided over by him. By some unfortunate combination of circumstances, this law was made to take effect after the adjournment of the legislature, and the Governor has held that he was, in consequence, prevented from making the appointments, and the matter stands over until the meeting of the legislature in January.

This council, if it shall be organized, will have full powers of inspection of all local, penal and charitable institutions, established under state laws, and if the legislature can be induced to appropriate the necessary means for its work, will doubtless do much towards remedying the worst evils of our jails and poor houses. Sanitary inspection of these places was made one of the duties of the State Board of Health in 1882, and has been performed as far as the limited means at command of that Board have permitted.

Such is a hasty resume of the situation of State Charities and Corrections in New Jersey. In a few particulars our progress has been, if not flattering, decided. The establishment of our State Deaf and Dumb Institution, the collection of our jail statistics, the attempt now making to gauge the character and conditions of New Jersey pauperism under the auspices of our Bureau of Statistics and Board of Health, are advances, and the council of Charities and Corrections which we need of all things, and from whose establishment we hope to date the beginning of a better system of treatment for paupers and jail prisoners, a more thorough acquaintance

with the causes and means of prevention of pauperism and crime, and a reform in many parts of our criminal legislation, would have been another advance, but for the blunder I have mentioned.

Against these we have to chronicle the ugly effects of the laws regulating the distribution of convict labor, the full mischief of which is yet to be realized, but which have already revealed enough unpleasant features to alarm and sadden any friend of prison reform.

Mrs. J. K. Barney, of Rhode Island, presented the work of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, in relation to jails and police stations as follows:

MRS. BARNEY: "I am here to represent the Woman's National Christian Temperance Union, which had its organization in nearly every state and territory of the republic, with an ever increasing membership, numbering at this time nearly 80,000, with the significant motto, 'For God, and Home and Native Land.' Among the thirty departments of work outlined by the leaders, is the Prison, Jail, Police and Almshouse visitation, of which I am National Superintendent. The moments allowed me are so brief that I can only call the attention of this body to one point — the need of matrons at police stations — and in all correctional institutions where women are detained, either for trial or punishment." She cited cases ranging from the United States Jail, at Washington, to smaller cities, where women were committed daily, and where sick, or well, they were without any assured seclusion or privacy and in the care of men, unless as in some cases, one of the criminal women was placed in temporary authority. She also read extracts from a letter written by Chief of Police Childs, endorsing the work of the police master in Providence, where the experiment had been tried for three years, and urged the question upon the attention of the conference, claiming that arrangements should be made in every city to have women appointed and stationed at

central places, into whose hands every woman arrested should be given, to be searched and cared for. In several cities the movement had already been inaugurated and gave universal satisfaction — the prejudice against it vanishing before the actual work of a plan—so readily seen to be in the interests of good morals and reform.

The following papers were then read:

DISCIPLINE IN PRISONS.

BY ELIZA M. MOSHER, M. D.

(Read, in her absence, by Mr. Sanborn.)

The subject of prison discipline is one upon which much has been said and written, and still the question "how shall criminals *as a class* be reformed" is one which remains practically unanswered. Confinement behind bolts and bars alone, has failed to do more than rid society for the time of a dangerous element. Imprisonment with hard labor, great physical discomfort and privation, with harsh treatment and gloomy surroundings, has ended only in greater moral and physical degradation. Justice demands that offenders against law shall be punished! Christianity demands for them a discipline which shall correct and reform their evil natures, changing them from criminals to God-fearing, law-abiding citizens.

The present century has witnessed much improvement in the management of penal institutions, and yet a large proportion of those who leave our Prisons and Houses of Correction to-day, return more or less speedily to the lives they led before imprisonment began.

In order that we may rationally judge of the needs of this class, let us for a moment consider the condition of the men and women who comprise it. We find them in the main, individuals of unsymmetrical mental development, whose "moral sense" is weak, whose consciences are perverted, without self-control, with no will to do right, or having it, they are too weak to resist opposing influences. Add to all this the habits of intemperance and unchastity, so general among them and who can wonder that the task of reformation is one which assumes gigantic proportions.

Discipline in its broad sense, means education, instruction, correction, hence the discipline of a prison includes all influences calculated to elevate and improve the

spiritual, moral or physical natures of the imprisoned. Meagre as have been the good results, even of the most successful modes of prison management up to the present time, enough has been achieved to show that we are working in the right direction. Education, instruction, correction, in a word *discipline*, rightly directed and long continued, is the force which alone can re-adjust such imperfect and wrongly developed natures. What are the factors of such discipline, is the problem of to-day! The elements which we have thus far found may be included under the following heads, viz.:

1. Careful religious instruction.
2. Regular employment.
3. A firm and unyielding, but kind enforcement of wise rules and regulations.
4. Classification, or division into grades.
5. Definite and certain advancement for continuous, good behavior.
6. Intellectual culture, by means of study, reading, etc.

The influence of a good chaplain in any penal institution is great and far-reaching, but too much has been expected from it in the past. No person, and no *one* influence, *acting from without*, can be relied upon to change the moral natures of such a class, as the one with which we are dealing. One act of injustice on the part of an officer, an angry word spoken by one who should always maintain a quiet self-control, is sufficient to undo all the good work which the words of a chaplain may have begun in the heart of a prisoner. The Sunday sermon may almost as well remain unpreached, if its truths are not exemplified in the lives of those who stand in the responsible position of keepers of these misguided beings. To be in the highest sense successful therefore, a chaplain's work must be supplemented by all the other influences which surround the imprisoned.

Regular employment has long been considered one of the most important elements of prison discipline, and justly so. Any body of well disposed persons would soon become demoralized if shut up together, without physical or mental employment; and how much less can we expect wicked and indolent members of society to acquire steady habits of industry under such a regime. The question "how to employ prisoners," has long been a difficult and vexatious one, both in Europe and America. What employment can be provided which will not "take the bread out of the mouths of honest people?" How make prison labor profitable to the state, and at the same time healthful and instructive to the impris-

oned? We cannot turn aside to the discussion of this question here; suffice it to say, the present system of contracts, necessitating the introduction of instructors and overseers, having no authority in the institution, and no interest other than a pecuniary one, has by no means solved the problem. Much care as to the physical suitability of each individual to the labor assigned him, should be observed, as the life and health of persons deprived of liberty, is a trust which may not lightly be set aside. Too much importance can not be attached to the teaching of useful trades and occupations, as in many instances the inability to do good work is the origin of criminal practices.

There is no question of more grave importance, in the management of an institution which aims at the reformation of its inmates, than that of the administration of punishments for misdemeanors, infringement of rules, etc. A mature and unbiased judgment, together with a kind but unyielding firmness, are essentials in the character of a person into whose hands this task falls. As a rule, the warden or superintendent is the one who *alone* should have authority to direct this part of the discipline. He should, however, have a trusty officer, upon whom he can rely to carry out his orders in this regard, as it is usually exasperating to a prisoner, when in a perturbed and rebellious state of mind, to come in contact with the one who directs the punishment, which for the time seems so grievous to him.

Any punishment which fails to induce real penitence in the person upon whom it is inflicted, fails to accomplish aught but an outward observance of a form of justice. No self-control will be gained for future need, and the individual usually becomes stolid and vindictive under it. Unjust punishment has the same effect, hence the great importance of employing officers who have themselves learned self-control, and who will conscientiously report all who deserve punishment, but who will allow no personal feeling of dislike or malice to affect their action in the matter.

It is not the *severity* of a punishment so much as the *certainty* of it, which acts as a deterrent. A regular code of punishments should be established in every penal institution, subject of course to modification in special cases. Very excellent results have been obtained at the "Massachusetts Reformatory Prison for Women," by the "cumulative plan," *i. e.*, beginning with a light punishment, and increasing its extent in a *definite ratio*, with each successive offense. In most cases simple iso-

lation in a lighted room (or cell) with regular employment, and the usual amount of food, was effectual, the prisoner being told how long the isolation would continue and that with the next offense the length of time would be increased. This plan rigidly carried out, will, we believe, make the *dark cell*, with a diet of bread and water, seldom needed; it does not injure the health, as occasional exercise in the yard can be given, if necessary, and it does not prevent labor, as work of some kind can always be provided for those in isolation.

The subject of classification of prisoners, though one which presents formidable difficulties, is of great importance in connection with prison discipline. Two methods have been advocated: I. Classification according to crime. II. Separation, by division into grades, each prisoner entering the lowest, or next to the lowest grade (according to the crime for which he is committed), from which he has the power to rise by continuous good behavior to the highest. The first method insures the separation of those committed for high crimes from those sentenced for minor offenses, which is an important issue; it, however, not unfrequently happens that the worst centres of moral contagion are found in the class last named; furthermore it interferes with the system of promotion for good behavior, so valuable in its results. The second mode separates those committed for "high crimes" from others only during the time spent in the lowest grade (such alone being entered there). It, however, eventually separates the evil-disposed from those who do well, as the former seldom reach the higher grades.

In order that promotions may be justly and regularly made, a system of conduct marking needs to be established; this serves also as a kind of moral mirror in which each inmate sees himself reflected as it were, and it thus acts as a stimulus to good conduct. It also renders the system of "commutation of sentence for good behavior," so universally adopted at the present time, a more just reward of merit than it otherwise could be. Prisoners even more than any other class of human beings, need "a hope set before them," an object for which they will *voluntarily* strive, and no stimulus has yet been found so healthful as the desire for promotion, and the power to shorten the time to be spent in prison. It places the future of each individual to some extent in his own hands. Neither object can be attained without earnest effort, long continued; and *successful effort* means an increase of self-control and self-government, in fact, an exercise of the best powers of the mind in the *right*

direction. The privileges allowed to those who reach the highest grade tend to arouse in them a true self-respect which helps to fit them for a return to the world outside of prison bars.

To carry out either system of classification in the best manner, a prison building needs to be constructed with this especial object in view, but in any building some modification of the plan can be adopted, which will add much to the well-being of its inmates.

The fact that so large a proportion of the population of our penal institutions (more especially jails, houses of correction and prisons for women), are illiterate, naturally leads us to conclude that limited means of mental entertainment are productive of evil habits and associations. The ability to read and write, and the privileges of study, possess a power to interest and satisfy natural cravings of the human mind; they likewise give a dignity and self-respect to the possessor which nothing else can do; hence the importance of the introduction of school privileges into all institutions intended to be reformatory in character. Young and middle-aged prisoners usually grasp such opportunities with eagerness, and it is not uncommon for the unlearned man or woman of fifty, to manifest an earnestness and determination in learning, which too seldom characterizes the more youthful scholar.

Instructive and pleasing entertainments occasionally given, are important adjuncts of prison discipline — anything, in fact, which breaks the monotony of a life necessarily so uneventful, is healthful and productive of good results.

While it evidently is the duty of a christian people to surround the weak and wicked with every helpful influence which can be devised, let us not for a moment indulge in a sentimental hope that kind treatment, cleanly surroundings and the reposing of confidence in such unworthy objects will of itself elevate and change their evil natures. Prison life must be made laborious, exacting, constraining, and the prisoner, while not encouraged to look backward into the depths from which he is emerging, must not forget that "the way of the transgressor is hard." Give him *years* of such training and we may, with some reason, hope that he will come forth thanking God that his eyes are at last freed from their blindness, and his soul's fetters are unloosed.

POUGHKEEPSIE, New York, August, 1883.

POST PENITENTIARY TREATMENT OF CRIMINALS.

BY GEN. R. BRINKERHOFF.

In dealing with the criminal classes, legislation concerns itself almost entirely with penalties and punishment. "Thou shalt not" is the beginning, and the penitentiary is the ending of its consideration and action. This has been the rule in all ages, and in all nations, and so continues to the present hour. So far as legislation is concerned (and legislation is simply the dominant thought of a community or a nation), punishment is the antidote and cure-all for crime. An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, life for life.

Under the Christian dispensation, in the light of the teachings of Him who came into the world for the express purpose of announcing "a more excellent way" than the law of retaliation, it is exceedingly strange that nations professing the Christian name have not learned that something more than punishment is needed in dealing with the criminal classes. In short, is it not time for legislators to know and remember that punishment without cure is of little value, and that prevention is better than punishment and cure combined. This fact, so palpable to any one who will give earnest attention to the subject, does not seem to have received practical application to any large extent until the present century, and even now its recognition by legislators is the exception rather than the rule. In our own country this is especially the case, and to our shame it must be said we are far behind the best experience of the age in dealing with criminal classes. Our jails remain substantially what they were fifty years ago when DeTocqueville pronounced them "the worst prisons in the civilized world," and are nurseries of crime rather than its correctors. Our penitentiaries, with a few exceptions, are simply punishing places, and, as a rule, result in making men worse instead of better.

It is true we have accomplished a good deal in the way of prevention by our common schools and Sabbath schools, and something in the way of cure by reform schools, but in the way of cure of adult criminals, with the exception of the Reformatory Prison at Elmira, New York, and the Prison for Women at Sherborn, Mass., we have done substantially nothing.

In Europe, the system of progressive classification, or Crofton system, as it is usually called, is now rapidly

becoming universal, and, doubtless before the close of the present century, such prisons as now prevail in this country will be considered simply relics of a barbarous age

It is true, in recent years we have had a good deal of agitation about our prisons, but as a rule it has been an ill-considered clamor for the abolition of the system of contract labor, regardless of consequences, and apparently utterly oblivious of the fact that it has been demonstrated, with all the certainty of a mathematical proposition, that to abolish contract labor without the substitution of the Crofton system, or at least, without the substitution of an administration purely non-political, and specially trained to the work, can only result in enormous evils to the state and without any valuable compensating good, either to the convicts inside, or to the laborers outside.

That the system of contract labor has great and inherent evils is evident to every intelligent student of the subject, but what to substitute in its place is one of the most perplexing problems in the whole science of penology. Personally, I am in favor of its abolition, and I believe it can be done successfully, provided all the requisite accessories can accompany its substitute; but without these accessories, and substantially the whole of them, I am in favor of the retention, in some form, of the contract system.

At present, however, the object I have in view has no special reference to prison labor, or even to the Crofton system except so far only as it pertains to the treatment of criminals, subsequent to their discharge from the walls of the prison. My subject, therefore, is entitled the post-penitentiary treatment of criminals.

THE CROFTON SYSTEM.

The Crofton system proper grades its prisoners into three or more classes. At Elmira these classes are all in the same prison. In Ireland they are in three separate prisons, located at a distance from each other. In its best form the prisoners are not sentenced for a definite period of time, but are sent to prison as patients are sent to the hospital, to be cured, and not to be discharged until they are cured. The duration of confinement, therefore, is entirely dependent upon the prisoner himself. At Elmira he starts in the second class, and he can go up or down just as he will. By a sytem of marking, his position is accurately and constantly located. A certain number of good marks, and a certain period of good

conduct brings the privilege of a trial discharge on ticket of leave. Outside the prison walls he is still a convict under sentence, and subject to recall at any time for misconduct. If his conduct continues good, so that he fully establishes a trustworthy character, he is finally graduated into complete citizenship. This conditional discharge has proved so powerful an incentive for good that experiments have been made to utilize it in other prisons not conducted on the Crofton system.

In our prisons as now constituted, the liberation of a prisoner at the expiration of his sentence is a matter of small moment to the prison authorities. He has served his term and discharged his obligations to the state. The doors are opened, and as he goes out the books are closed with the doors, and the state ends all further interest in his welfare. The discharged prisoner, of course, goes where he is most welcome, and that is, as a rule, to his old haunts, and among his old companions in crime, and "the last state of that man is worse than the first." In the judgment, however, of those who have given the largest consideration to the subject, the liberation of a prisoner is the most important moment of all connected with his punishment, and therefore the post-penitentiary treatment of a convict becomes a matter of prime importance.

The Crofton system, with its indeterminate sentence, and conditional discharge, recognizes this fact, and provides the necessary appliances for the future; and so vast have been its influences for good, that it seems exceedingly important that we should transfer its benefits as far as practicable to our ordinary prisons. The only country in which this has been done to any large extent is in England, and most fully there in the county of Gloucester, where the idea seems to have originated, or at least where it first received public recognition and approval.

For the details of the working of this system, which is known as "police supervision," I am indebted to Mr. Barwick Baker, who for nearly half a century past has been one of the Associate Justices of the county of Gloucester, and through whose efforts largely the system has been brought to its present condition of efficiency. It is an interesting history, but I have only time to consider the completed system as now operated under the act of Parliament, adopted August 21, 1871, and through the concerted action of the Associate Justices of the county of Gloucester. I quote mainly from Mr. Baker's own statements. He says: "As far back as 1839, Matthew

Davenport Hill recommended that all prisoners convicted of felony for the second time should be placed under the supervision of the police. In 1869 this recommendation was carried into effect by the legislature, but the powers given to the police were hardly sufficient. In 1871, however, the act called the Prevention of Crimes Act was passed, and under this the English courts are now working. Under this law when any one is convicted of a felony, and a previous conviction of felony has been proved against him, the court may sentence him to be under the supervision of the police for any term not exceeding seven years after the end of his punishment. While he is under supervision he is bound to report himself every month to the police of his district, or to some person whom they may designate to receive it, and must give, if required, an account of his earnings and manner of living. Secondly, he must not remove from the district where he is living without giving notice to the police of the district. Thirdly, he must not remain in any district to which he may remove over forty-eight hours without giving notice to the police of the district.

"For disobedience to either of these orders he may be rearrested and returned to prison. When a convict is sentenced to supervision he will, while in prison, be asked where he intends to settle, and whether he is able to find work there. The warden of the prison will then write to the police of the district, stating what time the man is coming there, and if necessary, desiring them to look out for some place of work for him. His railroad fare will then be paid to him, and he will immediately report himself at the nearest police station, where he will be told where he can find work, or if necessary, may receive aid from a discharged prisoner's aid society. If he continues there in steady work he will be free from molestation or interruption of any kind as a man of the highest character. He will have indeed, once a month, to report himself either to the police or to some person appointed by them. When they are satisfied as to his steady conduct, they may authorize the nearest justice, or clergyman, or even his own employer, to receive his report. If he wishes to remove to another district, or to another county, he has only to go to the police and tell them where he intends to go, and they will write to the police of the district, under whose care he will go on as before. Even if he change his mind on the road, and finds some place of work, he has only to give notice to the police and state his history, and he may work in that district as long as he pleases. Thus so long as he con-

forms to the rules, he is little, if at all, worse off than the freest laborer. The practical operation of this law has proved itself much more satisfactory in every way than the old system; and one year of imprisonment, with seven years of supervision, is found far better than a longer sentence without supervision. In the nature of things this must be so. For the man who desires to reform every incentive is afforded him. The police, instead of being his enemy, are his friends, and it is made their duty to help him, and protect him as long as he shows a disposition to be a good citizen. If he is incorrigible the police know where he is, and any overt act returns him to prison."

MINOR OFFENDERS.

For short term prisoners, such, I take it, as we send to our jails and work houses, Mr. Baker advocates a similar system. He says:

"I believe that with the introduction of a short and simple act of parliament power might be given to justices in a case where they would now ordinarily give twelve months' imprisonment, and where from their knowledge of the prisoner's antecedents they might deem it a fit case, to pass a sentence of three years' *liability to imprisonment:* explaining at the same time to him and the public that he probably would be actually in prison for only one month and pass the rest of the time under supervision unless he, in any way, misbehaved — that during this time he would have to find work and his character known, and therefore probably not at high wages; that he must report himself to the police and answer their questions every month, or if you please oftener; that he must pay a small sum, say a shilling a week, towards first repaying all that he has stolen, and secondly, repaying part at least of the expenses of his prosecution; that he must feel the inconvenience of the loss of his character for the time, but that he must be encouraged to hope to *regain that character* by the only means by which it can be regained, namely by a long course of steady, honest life.

"I believe were this system well carried out it would reduce our gaol population and the cost of it very greatly — that it would be more deterrent to those likely to fall into crime to see the criminal working amongst them for three years, and repaying what he has cost the public, than to have him removed out of their sight to a gaol of which they know nothing. I believe that earn-

ing his own living under a strict but kind supervision would be more reformatory than the prison; and I believe that a long supervision would be a greater safeguard to the public than the far shorter imprisonment."

Mr. Baker also advocates a system of police exchanges among counties and States, of information in regard to criminals, somewhat upon the plan of our Associated Charities.

It was supposed that it would be very difficult to keep track of persons discharged in this way, but it does not prove so in practice. Even in the city of London, with a population of four million, where the greatest difficulty was expected, it appears from the police report of 1881, that out of 1200 prisoners sentenced to police supervision, there were not above thirty who were not regularly reporting.

From the results of this sytem after twelve years experience in operating and observing it, Mr. Baker asserts that "it can no longer be doubted that conditional liberation for a prisoner is an enormous improvement on the old sytem."

This statement of Mr. Baker is fully corroborated by the best authorities in England. Mr. William Tallack, the Secretary of the Howard Association of London, who is in a position to know the general judgment upon the subject more fully perhaps than any other man, writes me in a recent letter, that the preponderence of public sentiment is that the system "operates well and wisely."

Mr. Tallack says that those who object to it do so upon the ground of its severity, and claim that it has "a cruel and discouraging effect upon the persons supervised after their discharge from prison."

That it is severe and discouraging to a confirmed criminal is doubtless true, but to a prisoner who desires to live honestly and regain his character, it is in every way helpful. I do not commend the system because it coddles criminals, but because it discriminates so as to restrain the incorrigible and help the repentant.

Now the question arises, can this system be operated in America? Personally, I have no doubt of it. Very likely it cannot be carried out here as efficiently as in a compact and closely organized community like England, but I am very sure that it can be so operated as to be of great advantage to society, and without any additional machinery except the appointment of a state superintendent of discharged prisoners, with power to command the co-operation of the ordinary police forces of the

state. That this co-operation may be more effective, the governor of state should be made the executive head of the police of the state the same as he is of the militia. The superintendent of discharged prisoners should also be provided with a small fund out of which to relieve temporarily a prisoner in distress or out of work.

In this matter of prison reform, however, the ultimate end to be aimed at, and hoped for and prayed for, is the entire reconstruction of our present prison system, and the universal substitution of the system of progressive classification, based upon the indeterminate sentence. Everything else is but patchwork; very necessary and very useful, but patchwork nevertheless.

THE GLOUCESTER SYSTEM.

In the county of Gloucester an additional system of police supervision, in a modified form, has been extended to prisoners not included in the acts of Parliament, and which has been created by agreement among the judges and prison officials of the county. This system, as described by Mr. Baker, is as follows: He says, "I feel some diffidence in suggesting a system which as yet has had scarcely six years of trial in its full extent, and only over one county containing 380,000 of population and only 800,000 of English acres; yet I think it will be found upon examination to have answered so well as to entitle it to consideration.

There is unhappily a feeling prevalent that punishment is given by way of retaliation or atonement for a crime, and that when a man leaves the prison he has paid his debt, has atoned for his wrong, and is entitled to be received as one who has not erred. Such a man conceives that he has a right to the same class of work and wages to which he was previously accustomed, and, finding himself rejected, he thinks that he is unfairly treated, and that he is justified in obtaining equally good employment either by suppressing the truth, or by direct falsehood, and when discovered and turned off he relapses at once to crime. It is much to be desired that all who have the opportunity, judges, magistrates in passing sentence, governors, officers — especially chaplains of prisons — and those who take a kind interest in assisting prisoners after their discharge, should impress upon them that the punishment is no payment of their debt to society, but an additional cost, and therefore increase of debt; that there can be no atonement in a compulsory submission, but that they may atone for the wrong and regain their character more or less by taking a lower

class of work, perhaps at lower wages, and by a long course of steady conduct in the sight of men, building up the good name they have for a time lost.

It was long ago the theory in England, that when a man had committed a crime and undergone his punishment, it was better that he should go to some new country where he was not known, and begin a fresh life with an unstained character, even though obtained at the cost of concealment of the truth, by which he evades the natural and proper punishment of his offense. This was not found to answer. Even where the truth was not discovered, the man felt that he was obtaining employment under false pretenses, and was either unhappy through the dread of discovery, or, which had a still worse effect upon his mind, he became callous to the deceit. Though change of country is not often advocated now, yet there is still a prevalent idea that the police ought never to betray the antecedents of a recently discharged prisoner, even when they find him employed in a place of trust, which would have been refused to him had his character been known (thereby exposing the prisoner to the temptation of abusing the over confidence of his trust), in order to spare him the the risk of losing the situation he has obtained through his concealment of the truth.

This system of truthfulness also saves a discharged prisoner from imposition from his old associates. If a man has got a place without his antecedents being known, and by good conduct has gained the esteem of his employer, and is highly trusted, and then is recognized by some rascal who knows his history and threatens to reveal it, and demands hush money, the poor wretch is entirely in the rascal's hands, and may be driven, first to give up every dollar he has saved, and after that to plundering his employer to any extent — to prevent — what? Why, to prevent *the truth* from being known. Had he never concealed or been allowed to conceal the truth, he would have risen more slowly perhaps but he would have been safe.

We believe that the punishment of imprisonment, though indispensable until we can find a better substitute, is unnatural, weakening, degrading and costly; that the natural punishment of feeling the loss of character for a time, and struggling to regain the confidence of society is healthful, strengthening, and ennobling, besides being costless; and that it is therefore, much to be desired that we should use the former as little, and the latter as much as we reasonably can.

We, therefore, give to each discharged prisoner, whether sentenced to police supervision or not, a paper stating that it is his duty to inform his employer of the whole truth, and that if he does not do this, the policeman will probably do so. Further, that if he has difficulty in finding work the police will do what they can for him and will assist him readily in all things so long as he lives honestly and does not conceal his antecedents. The policemen are instructed, if they find a recently discharged prisoner in a place of trust, to inform the chief constable of the county and to leave him to tell his employer or not, as he may judge best, but they have special instructions to be kind to all discharged prisoners, and to assist them with advice; or, if they find them in any distress not caused by their own misconduct, to help them with money from our charity fund.

When we commenced this system nearly six years ago there were great fears that it would at least occasion some distress, and that much money would be required. We found, on the contrary, that all our discharged prisoners who remained in the country were carefully looked after by the police; that all who were willing and able to work were employed, and that the sums given away were extremely small. The discharged prisoners generally speak with gratitude of the kindness they have received from the police, while the latter find it less trouble to be applied to as friends by the discharged prisoners than to maintain a secret watch over them, and this more friendly relation to the police strengthens the discharged prisoner against temptation, and greatly lessens relapses into crime. We have not in these six years had one instance of the chief constable having to inform an employer of a discharged prisoner's antecedents, and when there is nothing to conceal there is no fear of detection, and no possibility of being turned out of work or lodgings in consequence of "being found out."

It is true that there are many who object to employing discharged prisoners, and though we may regret this objection we have no right to deceive them or allow them to be deceived; but there are quite enough employers, who, either from kindly feeling, or for the sake of slightly lower wages, are willing to take such men, and the police can find out with very little trouble where to place any one who can not find work for himself.

The public appear to appreciate the being fairly dealt with, and many are willing to employ a discharged

prisoner with a full knowledge of his character, who would have turned one off who was found to have obtained employment without stating the truth. On the whole, on six years' experience we can recommend the consideration of the measure to other counties."

In 1854, Sir Walter Crofton commenced his system in Ireland. Beginning with the same grounds as the Gloucester system, he simply carried it out and did not let the convicts go until places were found for them, and a watch was carefully kept upon them, and the employers of convicts knew it. Mr. Baker states that in 1861, he went with Baron Holtzendorff and Col. Akroyd to talk with a large number of tradesmen of Dublin, some of a very high class, who employed some of the convicts, and they told him that, while at first they had not much liked taking them, they now hoped never to be without some of them, as, though they did not trust them with money, yet, being under the watch of the police and feeling that they were on trial to regain their character, they were more to be relied on for steady work than ordinary workmen. Mr. Baker states that a similar experience has been obtained in London, where it was claimed that no man *known* to have been in prison could find honest employment, and where the police were instructed to take the greatest care, not to let the truth be known. In 1864, however, Mr. Murray Browne took the management of the Discharged Prisoner's Relief Society in that city (for short sentence men), and from the first determined not to place out any man without making known his antecedents. During the first, and all the eight years in which he retained the management, although above 500 men each year were sent to him, there was not one for whom he was unable to find a sufficient place of work, and up to the present time the work has been carried on with equal success by those who followed him.

In America a similar experience has been found in the employment of persons discharged on parole, or ticket of leave from the New York Reformatory at Elmira.

Mr. Baker, after an experience of nearly half a century in dealing with the criminal classes, sums up the results as follows: "I have now for over forty years acted as a visiting justice, and I trust I have endeavored to improve the system to the best of my ability; but though I never like to find fault with or complain of an established system without being able to suggest anything better in its place, I have long felt a hope that,

in the words of a very shrewd chairman of quarter sessions, 'England will not for much longer indorse a system of simple imprisonment as the only or chief means of preventing crime.' In our own county of Gloucester the daily average of convicts in prison has decreased to an extraordinary extent In 1844 we had room for 860 prisoners (in seven gaols of county, city and burough), and we were told that we should soon find this not enough. We have now shut up or pulled down six gaols out of the seven, and for the year 1881 the average number of prisoners was only 131.

Of the prisoners outside, under police supervision, a quarterly report is made by the chief constable of the county, and the following is his report to the quarter sessions, July 3, 1883:

1st. Convicts on license under the act of 1871:

Total number		39
Earning an honest living	22	
Transferred to other counties	10	
In Workhouse	1	
Out of crime	—	33
At large, doubtful character	1	
Returned to prison	1	
Lost sight of	4	
	—	6
Total		39

2nd. Supervisees under the Gloucester system:

Total number		68
Earning an honest livelihood in the county	28	
Transferred to other counties	17	
In Workhouse as paupers (ill, etc.)	4	
Out of work	3	
Emigrated	1	
Enlisted in the army	1	
Out of crime	—	54
Relapsed and re-imprisoned	6	
Lost sight of (absconded)	8	
	—	14
Total		68

IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the United States, so far as I am aware, the only prison, aside from the Elmira Reformatory, in which practical consideration has been given to the Gloucester requirement that a discharged prisoner shall tell the truth as to his antecedents, when seeking employment, is in Wisconsin. Prisoners there are invited and en-

couraged so to do. The results have been very satisfactory, and not a single instance is known where any prisoner, who had made a profession of honesty and told where he came from, has ever been rebuffed.

BINDING OUT PRISONERS.

Still another method of dealing with convicts outside of the penitentiary is what is known as binding out. This system, so familiar in reformatories for boys and girls, has recently been adopted in the reformatory prison for women in the state of Massachusetts. By acts of the legislature the commissioners of prisons are authorized "When it shall appear that any person imprisoned in the reformatory prison for women has reformed, they may issue to her a permit to be at liberty during the remainder of her term of sentence upon such conditions as they may deem best."

After fully testing this legislation by binding out prisoners to domestic service, the prison authorities say: We regard this law as one of the most important which has ever been enacted for the purpose of securing the reformation of criminals. Many of the prisoners need the restraint of such a life as this provides. They have spent their lives in domestic service and have no other purpose than to continue in the same labor. They need to be under guardianship far more than orphaned children do. The board endeavors to select families which will take an interest in the welfare of the prisoners, doing much for them, and bearing much from them."

Of those placed out under this system the Board say, "a few of them, after the expiration of their terms of service, returned to their lives of vice, but many of them remain permanently with the families to which they were bound."

The prison itself is organized upon the Crofton system of classification, but without the indeterminate sentence. All enter the grade next to the lowest (the 3d) and are not eligible for the binding out until they reach the highest.

CONCLUSION.

Now, if all these facts be fairly stated, and I believe them to be, and if no other facts can be shown on the other side, and I am aware of none, are we not justified in concluding that in dealing with the criminal classes, the outside or post-penitentiary treatment of convicts is, to say the least, of equal importance to that inside?

When we remember that the number of ex-convicts now abroad in the United States is not much short of a quarter of a million, we can realize the importance of having them under police supervision.

In the State of New York alone the official reports for 1881, gives the names of 1129 convicts dismissed during that year from the three long term prisons, while of felons and misdemeanants both it is estimated that there are 10,000 of them annually emptied from the prisons upon society in that State. Multiply these figures by ten and we have a fair approximation of the annual deluge precipitated upon the people of the United States as a whole.

How to control this flood of crime, or at least how to deal with it so that society shall suffer the least, is the question we have in hand. My own opinion is that police supervision, thus far, presents the most promising results of any yet proposed. With police supervision outside of the penitentiary, and progressive classification inside, it seems entirely practicable to sift out, with a high degree of certainty, the good from the bad, the savable from the unsavable, and so handle them that the one shall be disinfected, and the other permanently quarantined.

Courts and juries, in the nature of things, can not discriminate to any large extent. The drag-net of the law takes in all alike who come within its sweep, and empties the catch into the penitentiary in an unsorted lump. Under the present system it remains unsorted, with the result in the end of making the whole mass either wholly bad, or at least largely tainted by its worst ingredients.

What is wanted is to eliminate as quickly as possible the leaven of evil and purify the rest. How to do this is the problem to solve. The methods presented in this paper are attempts in this direction, and as such I submit them to the consideration of the Conference.

NOTE.—Since the completion of this paper I have received from Mr. Baker two letters, the last of which gives so much additional information and advice that I append it entire. Those who know Mr. Baker personally, or otherwise, will be pained to know that his health has failed, and that his life is near its close. He says he will probably live until cold weather returns, and may survive the winter, but does not expect it.

Sir Walter Crofton is also very ill, so that before another annual meeting of this conference, in all probability, these two great prison reformers—the greatest now living—will have passed away.

Mr. Baker's letter is as follows:

HARDWICKE COURT, GLOUCESTERSHIRE, ENGLAND, August 9, 1883.

DEAR GENERAL BRINKERHOFF:

I send you several papers written at different times on Police Supervision, with a book which will show you how it was *badly* done in England and well done in Ireland, and it is worth something to see how it *ought not* to be done.

The history of Police Supervision is this: Our criminals used to be transported to Australia or Van Diemans-land; but about 1850 most of our colonies refused to receive them; the convict prisons were very full and very bad and our Government wanted to get rid of them. In 1853 an act was passed *inventing* Penal Servitude. This was to be a tripartite punishment, i. e., first about nine months in a separate cell; about three-fourths of the rest of the sentence in associated labor; and about one-fourth at liberty under supervision. It was intended that liberty on license should not be granted to a man until a place of work was found for him; but Sir Joshua Jebb, then Chief Director of convicts in England, was in a hurry to get his men out, or could not find places for them, and so discharged them with *the form* of a license, but never inquired about them. The effect was *as bad* as might be expected.

On the other hand, in Ireland, Captain (now Sir Walter) Crofton, the Director of convicts in that island, carried out the system properly and added a new stage to the Penal Service gradation. The success was admirable and the number of convicts sank in a few years to one-fourth of the former number.

I must explain that *here* we use the term convict (improperly) restricting it to the more serious class of offenders sentenced to penal servitude, while those sentenced for short terms to the smaller prisons are called *prisoners*.

In the black book I send you, Wheatley Balme gives you the description of the English and Irish systems in 1862, with his quaint humor but *most truly*. In 1864, however, a new penal servitude act was passed and a clause was introduced — desperately opposed by the ministers in both houses — ordering that all convicts on license should report themselves to the police every month, and this was well carried out in most places. The change was great. In 1863 scarcely a newspaper passed a week without recording some "atrocities of ticket of leave men." In 1865 scarcely a case was stated. I watched it closely in my own county and found nearly all in steady work. I think about one in eight offended again and were caught and recommitted, and about one in ten or fifteen absconded and was not caught.

At a social science conference in 1868, Sir Walter Crofton proposed that the association should memoralize Government to give power to pass sentences of not exceeding seven years Police Supervision on all convicted of felony for a second time. I seconded him and we fought it with all our might, and in 1869 an act was passed to allow it.

It was not a good act; the House of Commons had spoiled it, and cut out the monthly reporting, but in 1871 Lord Aberdeen carried an act giving us nearly all the power we wished, and all has gone well since.

Papers 182, 219, 221, 244 and 245 are on Police Supervision solely, the last being the account of its being carried out in London by my friend Howard Vincent. This was remarkable because, though it had been remarkably successful in rural districts, the police of the larger towns declared that they could not carry it out and all said that in London it would be *impossible!* Yet Vincent, a young man appointed to a high office (Director of Criminal Investigations) within

three years of his appointment, carried it out successfully in London, with 4,000,000 inhabitants.

Papers 207, 209, 210, 211, 216, 254 and 263 give the account of our system of preventing discharged *prisoners* (not convicts) from concealing their antecedents, but employing the police to find them places of work with money to relieve them if necessary (which it very seldom is) and in fact making them act as the agents of our "Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society," and admirably they act as the kindest friends of the libere so long as he works honestly, but the sure detectors if he relapses. Paper 263 gives the unanimous opinion of our quarter sessions in favor of its success.

Paper 220 is a scheme I have long thought of, but, though many leading men, Sir Edmund Dufane, director of convicts and prisons, amongst others, tell me it would certainly succeed, yet all have their hands full of work, and it would be a *great change*, and none of them will take it up actively. Poor Crofton is too ill; so am I, yet I doubt not, please God, that it *will* come some time, though long after I am gone hence. Will not you "go ahead" of us?

Sincerely yours, T. B. Ll. BAKER.

P. S. If you want to lessen crime the best means thereto is to lessen temptation. This is a moral, a political, and a religious duty, as we ourselves are taught to pray that ourselves may not be led into it.

Put yourself in the place of one just discharged from prison. It is difficult to find work, and with no friends to help or advise, it would be hard not to steal. Again, fancy yourself coming out of prison under police supervision. You are asked where you want to go. You say "Mansfield." Your photograph and description are sent to the police who offer you one or two places of work, not very highly paid, but where you can live honestly until after some years you have regained your character. You have to call on the police once a month. If you were tempted to steal something don't you think you would feel "I've got to go to that policeman in three weeks, and I can't, or shan't, like to face him if I've stolen anything." Would it not help to prevent your temptation?

Again, men say it will be no good in America, because a libere may go off west and be lost. At least if he does you are rid of him, and if he returns you will take him up for absconding. He is no more likely to go west when he has work than, by the account of some of your writers, he is now when refused work and persecuted by all.

AID TO DISCHARGED PRISONERS.

JUDGE J. W. HENRY.

"No enlightened government inflicts punishment upon its criminals in a spirit of vengeance, nor has any government the right to do it."

The divine injunction, "Thou shalt not kill," applies as well to communities and bodies politic, as to individuals, and when a government in a spirit of vengence, inflicts capital punishment, it commits murder.

"Vengeance is mine, I will repay" saith the Lord. God's canon against murder is older than the statute of

any nation on the subject, and no government is justifible in taking the life of a citizen, except for its own preservation, or the security of society, and *no punishment* is defensible on any other ground.

"Every punishment," says Montesquieu, "which does not arise from absolute necessity, is tyrannical." And Beccaria observes that: "The intent of punishment is not to torment a sensible being, nor to undo a crime already committed." Says the same learned author: "The end of punishment, therefore, is no other than to prevent others from committing the like offence."

A wise law giver, in prescribing the punishment for crime, adopts that which is most likely to deter men from its commission. The infliction of pain upon the criminal is not the main, or a material consideration, with intelligent legislators. Punishment is resorted to, because experience has proved that nothing else so effectually restrains men from committing crime.

If it could be demonstrated that reward for keeping the law, would be more effectual to accomplish the desired object, than the infliction of punishment for its infraction, would any wise human law giver reject such a system, and insist upon punishment instead?

If the punishments inflicted upon criminals neither tend to their reformation, nor to deter others from the commission of crime, then no punishment, except that which restrains them of their liberty or terminates their lives, can be inflicted but in a spirit of vengeance.

The principal objects to be accomplished by the confinement of criminals in state prisons, are: first, to restrain the criminal from perpetrating other crimes; second, to deter others from committing similar offenses; and third, the reformation of the prisoner himself.

It should ever be borne in mind that punishment is a means, not an end, and government should inflict it in the same spirit which actuates a Christian parent in the chastisement of his child. No good parent punishes his offspring as an end, but as a means, and if the end to be accomplished — the reformation of the child — could as well be effected otherwise, he would "spare the rod."

All state prisons, therefore, should be reformatory, as well as penal institutions, and such as are only the latter are a disgrace to our religion and civilization.

The interest and care of the government for the imprisoned criminals should not terminate, either when the doors of the prison are closed upon him, or when they are opened to set him at liberty, for while a humane prison discipline must, of necessity, be strictly enforced,

humanity dictates that regard should be had to his comfort and health, and that such culture should be bestowed upon his moral as well as his intellectual nature, that when his term of imprisonment expires, he may leave the prison a better man than when he entered within its gloomy walls.

And here a duty rests upon the government which has been most shamefully neglected by every state of this Union. The prisoner comes out into the busy world a branded man. Shunned, detested and feared, the avenues to employment are all closed against him. Good society is as inaccessible to him as to a wild beast. He is excluded from all association, except with the vicious and depraved, and is thus driven back to the very haunts in which he started on his career of crime, with the same evil influences which first made him a felon, ever present, tempting him back to a life of lawlessness.

Is it strange that one who has served a term in a state prison is likely to return to the same or some other prison, when he is thus forced back to the dens of vice in which he took his first lessons in crime and iniquity? Would it not be more remarkable if, with such surroundings, he should become an honest, upright citizen? (Here are omitted statistics with respect to the number of prisoners who are serving a second or more terms.)

In most of the states no means are provided by the government — and in no state are they adequate — by which a discharged convict can earn an honest living, and his application for employment to individuals engaged in the ordinary pursuits of life, is attributed, if he is known to be a discharged convict, to a desire on his part of an opportunity to rob or steal, and they shun him as they would a contagion. But one of two courses is open to the miserable discharged convict. He must begin a new life under an assumed name — start out with a falsehood upon his lips in order to get employment and gain admission to decent society, or in his own disgraced name starve, or return to the infamous dens and associates in which, and with whom, he took the steps which led him as a criminal to the state prison.

What right have we, under their present treatment, to expect such men to become honest, and useful members of society?

Society itself is to blame, in a large proportion of the cases of discharged convicts, who return to their former dishonesty and lawless practices. It is not expected of reputable citizens that they will take discharged convicts nto their confidence, and introduce them into the

bosoms of their families, the moment they are released from imprisonment, but I do insist that it is the duty of the government to provide for them means of earning an honest living. To give them at least an opportunity to regain the confidence and esteem of their fellowmen.

Nor is there anything utopian in the suggestion.

It may be difficult to devise a plan which will work successfully at once — I concede the difficulty, but no human institution or invention, of great value, has ever sprung perfect from the brain of man.

At first we have only the imperfect outlines, but from time to time defects are discovered and remedied until, finally we have something approximating perfection.

Our federal constitution, which, from our infancy, we have been taught to believe the most perfect ever framed by man, has often been amended wherein experience had demonstrated its imperfection.

No state which has been twenty years a member of our confederation of States, has the same constitution under which it was admitted into the Union. And with knowledge of the success achieved by plodding men in the perfection of the most complicated machinery, and in training organic laws for the government of great states with conflicting interests, shall we hesitate, on account of the difficulties in our way, to attempt anything, in legislation, which the comfort and well-being of our race demand?

It may take years to perfect a system by which the unfortunate class for which I plead, will be provided with employment, at places to which they may go, and live honestly if they will, but the difficulties to be encountered, should not deter us from making the experiment.

I believe it possible to reclaim fallen men and women. Many are the men and women now deservedly occupying high social position, who, if they had been detected and exposed in their first false step, would at this moment be outcasts.

There are to-day men who having committed crime, are leading exemplary lives, but forever trembling under the apprehension of recognition, arrest and punishments.

Jean Val Jean, though a character of fiction, has similitudes in real life, and Victor Hugo doubtless wrote Lés Miserables to teach governments a lesson of forbearance and humanity, in the administration of criminal law.

Would any government be the better for the detection

and reincarceration of such a character as Victor Hugo's escaped galley slave?

Is there a man with a humane heart in his bosom, who would not rather that such men should escape the punishment for their crimes prescribed by law, than that after years of remorse, repentance and suffering, leading irreproachable lives, they should be detected and punished as felons?

That condition of the heart which has sinned, satisfies God's justice — propitiates heaven's mercy.

An unnecessary punishment, or one which excites for the victim the deep, enduring sympathy of the spectator, accomplishes no good.

There are instances of crime which it were better for the state to overlook than to punish, and there are criminals whose lives under a perfect disguise, are far more profitable than their punishment would be. Sir Walter Scott, in "The Heart of Mid Lothian," observes, speaking of the Porteous mob, "What good impression could be made on the public mind by punishment, when the memory of the offense was obliterated, and all that was remembered was the recent, inoffensive, or perhaps exemplary conduct of the offender." But to return from this digression; if no means are to be provided for the reformation of those who, for violations of the law are imprisoned, either while so imprisoned, or after their discharge, it were better to abolish that mode of punishment, and make all offenses now punishable by imprisonment in the state prison, capital crimes.

Better far would it be for the state, and certainly no worse for the criminal.

But it may be, as it has been urged, that the social status of the discharged convict is one of the incidents to the punishment which contributes equally with, or more than, the punishment itself, to deter others from violations of law.

For the sake of the argument this might be admitted, but on such a plea as this, such a miserable pretext, shall the state turn loose upon her citizens a class of men who, meeting with no sympathy or encouragement among good men, are unable to get employment by which they can live honestly, and are, by the inexorable prejudice against them, forced to consort with thieves and vagabonds? Shall this be permitted as a state measure, that their example may deter others from the paths in which they walk? Aside from the inhumanity of the suggestion to the discharged convict, while his sufferings and

degradation may deter one man from crime, his evil example and bad counsel will lead ten into infamy.

Vice is far more contagious than virtue. You can more easily lead ten men into sin and wickedness, than reclaim one who has fallen, and means which might be successfully employed to reform discharged convicts, or rather to encourage such as have resolved to reform, would result in ten fold more good to the state than the imaginary good accomplished by their degradation, in deterring others from violations of law.

If the punishment of imprisonment for crime be retained, let the state make provision for the employment at a reasonable compensation, of such discharged convicts as desire to work.

I do not propose to suggest the details of such provision, but only the principle. Either this, or in mercy to the criminal class, abolish your state prisons and make all felonies capital crimes, or else procure somewhere in mid-ocean an island, and to that island banish all found guilty of crimes not capital.

The state has no right to withdraw its care and concern from the discharged criminals, no right to turn loose upon society hundreds of criminals annually, aggregating thousands in a decade, upon whom she has placed a brand which effectually excludes them from the confidence of their fellow men, making no provision whatever by which they can earn an honest living, virtually graduating them into crime, and setting them at liberty that they may prey upon society.

The state has no right to inflict such a curse upon its communities, and while and where this course is pursued, there is nothing inexplicible in the fact that crime is on the increase.

It will increase in an arithmetical progression as long as the states of the Union continue their present treatment of discharged criminals.

I have not attempted to go into details with respect to the provision which should be made for this miserable class, because within my allotted time, I could not, if I had the capacity; but legislators should give the subject their attention. Humanity to those unfortunates, no less than the peace, welfare and safety of society, demands legislation on the subject.

In some localities charitable men and women have taken the matter in hand, and demonstrate, by what they have accomplished with limited means, operating within narrow limits, the incalculable good that might be effected if the state would, as in duty bound, make am-

ple provision for the employment of discharged criminals, as soon as they are released from imprisonment.

Philanthropists and christian men and women should move in the matter, and urge the legislatures of their respective states to consider the subject and that legislatures will rise to the dignity of the statesmen who will devise a scheme, and embody it in a law, which will accomplish the object suggested, and will have achieved a renown more enduring, and more to be coveted, than that of the leader of a victorious army in a hundred fields of carnage.

We are now but theorizing and speculating on the subject, but the day is near at hand, when legislators and rulers will have to grapple with it earnestly, as a practical question, of equal, if not greater, importance than those questions relating to commerce and finance, which absorb the attention of our legislative bodies, both state and national.

Sir, there are matters of greater moment to individuals and nations than material wealth.

The millions possessed by a family whose members are ignorant and vicious, would be well and profitably exchanged for a stock of intelligence and virtues, and a nation's material wealth falls far short of conferring upon the people the aggregate of happiness, contentment and security which would be afforded by a general diffusion of knowledge among them, and a general observance of the moral code by them. Too much attention is given by our legislative bodies to the promotion of industries which produce wealth, to the neglect of measures to make wealth a blessing instead of a curse.

The diamond which glistens on the breast of a well-known peculator and swindler, or the jewels which blaze on the bosom of a recognized courtesan, only serve to make their shame and infamy more conspicuous, and a nation may roll in wealth, the products of its factories and fields may be borne to every part, its granaries may be filled to overflowing with the fruits of the earth, and the evidences of riches and plenty be everywhere visible, but if ignorance, vice and lawlessness are the characteristics of that people, their wealth is of but little avail to confer the blessings which government is instituted to secure.

> "Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
> Where wealth accumulates and m n decay."

Better far the condition of the inhabitants of bleak, sterile districts, to whose patient, persistent toil their exhausted fields yield only a scanty return, but who eat

their frugal meal in peace, thanking God for his mercies, and lie down to rest with no fears of marauders and thieves to disturb their slumbers.

It was well remarked by a distinguished author and statesman, that "The prosperity and happiness of a people include something more evident and more permanent than the wealth of a nation."

The first, highest, grandest object of government is the promotion of the happiness of the people, and to this end, its first and highest duty to secure them in their persons and property. No expense required to effect these objects should be spared, and when a measure for their accomplishment is met with a minute, elaborate calculation of the cost, let the answer be, no expense is too great to be incurred by a government, which is necessary to secure the happiness and peace of its citizens.

It is well to protect and encourage all legitimate industries. National wealth is desirable, and may be a blessing, but every other intent is not to be ignored by the Government in its anxiety for riches and splendors.

> "Ye friends to truth, Ye statesmen who survey
> The rich man's joys increase — the poor's decay,
> 'Tis yours to judge how wide the limits stand,
> Between a splendid and a happy land."

In conclusion, if by our joint efforts we can induce one state of the Union to provide on an adequate scale, for the employment of such discharged convicts, as desire to work rather than to steal, I am satisfied that the results will be such, that in a few years, every state of the union will follow its example, and then, instead of enlarging, they may diminish the capacity of their state prisons. Crime will be checked, and thousands who will otherwise be released from prisons to prey upon society, will become useful citizens of the State. Are not these objects of sufficient importance, to engage the attention of our state legislatures? And will statesmen hesitate to grapple with the subject, on account of the difficulties and expense to be encountered in accomplishing the results desired. Legislation has accomplished no great reform by a first effort. Your criminal codes are amended and supplemented at every session of your state legislatures.

The laws of congress, regulating commerce, the currency, and on every important subject, are modified at every session of that body; and perfect legislation, on any subject of moment, if ever attained, is but the result of repeated experiments; and when success shall have

crowned the efforts made in the direction I have indicated, and thousands of men and women, who would otherwise have been discharged from prison, to skulk among dens of vice, and steep them still deeper in crime, are restored to manhood and womanhood, reimpressed with the image of God, what community, or government, would regret the money expended, or labor bestowed, to accomplish such results. The niggardly parsimony which would withhold the means requisite for such an achievement, would put to shame and blush the meanest sordidness ever yet exhibited on earth.

Rev. J. G. Nelson, of Missouri: Judge Henry asks the question, Where else could he go? referring to a discharged prisoner. Three years ago, there was a man in the prison at St. Louis. A short time before his discharge, he sent for the pastor of one of the Methodist churches and received counsel and encouragement from him. The pastor being satisfied of the sincerity of his reformation, he was taken into the church. Employment was found for him, yielding a living barely enough to keep him from starvation. He accepted the place, and labored faithfully and earnestly. He has continued to live in St. Louis. To-day he is employed in a responsible position in the establishment of one of our wealthiest men. He is admitted to his hospitality and sits at his table. I visit the church of which he is a member, occasionally, and have watched his course. He has the confidence and esteem of the pastor and of the entire congregation. A few days ago, I took him by the hand and had a conversation with him on the street, and I know, from the bearing of the man and his speech, that he has recovered his old self-respect, and he has the respect of all who know him.

The president requested Governor Blackburn, of Kentucky, to address the Conference.

Governor Blackburn: *Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen*—I have not the honor of being a delegate to this Convention, although I feel that I have a right to

be here, because I am perhaps one of the greatest prison reformers in the Southern States, and through the courtesy of your President I appear here, at all times willing and anxious to raise my feeble voice in defense of what I conceive to be a glorious cause.

The remarks that I shall make will be few. I have made no preparation. They will necessarily be desultory and disconnected, but my position for the last four years has been such as to familiarize me to a great extent with prison management and prison discipline. I have taken great interest in it and made it a special study. For many years I knew that the people of the Southern States were not alive to the importance of this great subject. Brave and chivalrous in other respects, they seemed not to know or care for the treatment of a human being. They were at all times ready to advance money and to use every effort in their power, to further the interests and prosperity of any other laudable object, but they seemed to be blind to the care and treatment of the human beings who were incarcerated in their penitentiaries. I determined, as far as I was able, that I would remove many of the evils that were being perpetrated in this State. And, thank God, I did it. I announced to the people of Kentucky, in my canvass that I would do, it, if the State refused to properly take charge of her wards and felons (though they were not all felons, for some of them were innocent). The gentleman from St. Louis has just spoken of the case of a man who was reformed. Why speak of that isolated case? There are hundreds of such cases over the land. The greatest philanthropist living at the present time was once an inmate of a penitentiary as a convict. There are ministers who have served terms in the penitentiaries. There are three men now occupying prominent positions, who were once inmates of the Pennsylvania Penitentiary, of which we heard a gentlemen speak this morning. There

is a gentleman in this State who has the confidence of the people as much as any man in the State, who served a term in the Missouri Penitentiary. Is it not astonishing that nothing has been done in the Southern States towards reforming prisoners? There has never been until recently one word of kindness or instruction for them. They are sent out without the slightest endeavor to reform them. Indeed, I heard a man of intelligence say once, that when a man entered a prison he should never come out. However, the whole problem is one of time. Time, which works wonders, will eventually bring us out of this chaos.

I give the Northern States credit for what they have done. They have made great advancement in this cause. The Southern States have made none. They hire prisoners out to the man who will pay the most money. Money and economy in cost of taking care of them is the sole object of the Southern States.

I think the Irish system is the best in the world. They spare no cost, no clerical force, but bend their whole efforts towards reforming the prisoners, and as an actual fact they reform ninety-four per cent. Men will say that that is impossible, that it cannot be, and yet when they learn the system they will not be astonished. A man raised on a wharf, among thieves and black-guards, who never belonged to a church or heard a single word of morality or Christianity, commits a larceny or burglary, and is sentenced to prison for three years. The warden reads the commitment and tells him that his punishment will be penal, but never brutal. His privileges will be many, and if he conforms to the rules of the prison, he will be released four or six months before his time is out. There is a hope of reward before him. he conforms to the rules, and the promise is complied with. As he does better and better, his privileges are increased and his privations are withdrawn. If his ser-

vices are worth seventy cents a day to the State, and his cost is twenty, the other fifty is sent to his family. There is an incentive before him to work well and behave well. He is taught well, and what is the effect? His family is well provided for; he is working with an incentive before him, he is trying to be a good man, and the result is, that when he comes out there are always persons ready and anxious to give him employment. The demand there is greater than the supply.

But in our Southern States, convicts are rented out on railroads, plantations and anywhere else. It is the most inhuman course ever adopted anywhere, to place men under an irresponsible person and let him manage them as he pleases. Sick or well he is compelled to work. It is an outrage upon morality, christianity and humanity. It is infamous, and I wonder that a just God has not inflicted punishment for that wrong long ago. The people are not wrong. It is those who are in authority and who can know, if they do not, who are to blame. I know that if the facts were known here in Kentucky and in the Southern States, the people would rise and tear the prison walls to the ground. I have but a few years longer to live; but my earnest wish is, that when the end comes, I may be found battling on the side of humanity, in behalf of those unfortunates who are incarcerated in Southern prisons. I hope that this meeting will take some decided stand on the subject. Take some action here and publish it, and it will have its effect. We have to bide our time, but I hope and trust that a just God will keep this question up until right shall triumph from ocean to ocean, and the people will all be fully awake to the responsibility that rests upon them for the proper care of prisoners. One of the happiest thoughts that can come to a dying man is that he has lived to some purpose. On a death-bed there can be no more satisfying thought than that I have done good to my fellow man. That one

thought would be more satisfying than all the wealth in the world. Go on in your noble work, gentlemen. In my humble position as a citizen, I will be with you, and whatever service I can render will be rendered, and I am wiling to give the balance of my time on earth in behalf of charity and prison reform.

GEN. THOMAS TAYLOR, Chief of Police of Louisville: *Mr. chairman, ladies and gentlemen* — I have given this matter little thought, and am not prepared to say anything in regard to it. The only point connected with your work that I know anything about is as to surveillance of discharged prisoners. Gen. Brinkerhoff requested me to state what I know as to the practicability of keeping the discharged prisoners of our city under surveillance. I think it is entirely practicable. A year or so ago, I required the officers in each beat in the city, to make a list of all suspected persons in their respective beats. This was done, and at one time we knew the place of residence of every suspected or bad character in the city. I also used the police in this connection for another purpose. If anyone applied for assistance, I put the matter in the hands of the officer of the beat and made him bring me a report whether the man was deserving, and in that way we furnished information to the Societies who were giving relief, and it was of great benefit to them. I think the police everywhere could be used to aid charitable associations in this way, in connection with their other duties.

BISHOP GILLESPIE: I would like to call out the experience which I believe is here in reference to aid to discharged prisoners. The point that I want to get at is this: What has been the experience of societies for the aid of discharged prisoners? We can all understand the situation of a discharged prisoner. We can all picture him standing in the early morning at the gate of the prison, not knowing where to go, with a few dollars

in his pocket, and we know how very easy it is for him to fall into the hands of the saloonkeepers, who are so plentiful about every town. They know a discharged prisoner as far as they can see him, and that is what ordinarily becomes of him; he falls into their hands. The saloonkeeper says, "Come here, you look thirsty, and like as you had not had a drink for some time. Come in." I have talked with prisoners when near the time of their discharge, and universally found that they had no plan. I would say to them; "What are you going to do when you come out?" "I do not know." "Have you no home to go to?" "No, sir." "Have you a wife?" "Yes, when I came in I had one, but she has obtained a divorce."

It seems to me that the best thing would be to have an agent for discharged prisoners who should look after them when they come out. We tried to bring about that result in our state. We went to the legislature and tried to get a bill passed but could not. I will say frankly that since that time the chaplain of one of our prisons told me that he had no confidence or faith in that plan, that if the prisoner had anything hopeful in him he would get along himself. I would like to call forth an expression from this Assembly — what has been the result of your observations?

Dr. John Morris, of Maryland: I will make a statement in regard to the work of our Prisoners' Aid Association. Our organization has a paid agent, an intelligent and useful man. He is continually on the go. He visits the prison every day of his life, to see the discharged prisoners and take them to his own home. He furnishes them the first meal they have outside of the prison. If the prisoner has no clothing he is clothed by our Association. Respectable employment is furnished for him. If he does not wish to stay there, he is sent to any place he desires to go, in the county or out of the state. He

corresponds with us, and the Association keeps a history of his life. We of the Association associate with the discharged prisoners. We make them our friends. They go to places of religious worship and are treated as friends, and received by the people. Many ex-convicts are in honorable employment in our city. This is the class of work our Association has done. We have no trouble in getting money from the citizens; men of all classes contribute. Our Association has done a great deal to lessen crime. Formerly there were eight hundred convicts; now we have only five hundred. Our jails, too, are not half full now.

MR. BYERS, of Ohio: What class are these men? and where do you put them?

DR. MORRIS: They are from all classes, necessarily. We have manufacturers who take them, mostly.

MR. BYERS: Do you have a loan fund for them?

DR. MORRIS: No, sir; we give them small sums of money to aid them.

MR. BYERS: Do you keep a register of those who prove faithful?

DR. MORRIS: I do not know positively as to that. The good of our work is manifest to us. We keep them under our eyes all the time. When we see the result of our work, we are more and more in love with it.

MR. CADWALADER, of Pennsylvania: I am very glad that this has been brought out. I think, from the testimony of all who know of it, that it is the most complete association of its kind in the country. I have visited the prisons in Baltimore, and ascertained from the officials the wonderful effect which the society has had. The figures are quite extraordinary.

Mrs. COBB, of Wisconsin: I fully coincide with the leading thoughts of the admirable paper read this morning by Miss Hall, and gladly embrace the opportunity to endorse the principles and methods it advocates. These

are such as are in operation in our chief reformatories for girls — in the Girls' Department of the House of Refuge, New York, the oldest of juvenile reformatories in the United States — where Mr. I. C. Jones, now present, has been for more than thirty years a superintendent; in the Female House of Refuge, of Philadelphia, the next in age, and now beyond its fiftieth year, where the improvement made during the last twelve years proves most conclusively that "the world does move." In the family schools of Massachusetts, Ohio and Connecticut, now no longer in the experimental stages, but able to show a large percentage of reforms and in the younger institutions of Iowa, Michigan and Wisconsin, while we move hopefully on, under some peculiar discouragements but with many advantages, though we may reach new truths and more effectual methods by shorter processes than the older workers were able to do, we must not forget that the good work done by the pioneers of reform, in the old schools, has prepared the way for the humane endeavors and noble achievements of the present day.

Perhaps no other school doing the same work has contended with so many disadvantages in its start and progress, as the one I represent as its superintendent, with the delegate sent by its board of managers to this conference. Most of such institutions have been deliberately planted by State authority, in conformity to a widely felt necessity, and appropriate legislation and generous appropriations have preceded their opening. The Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls is but eight years of age, and was begun as a city charity, in a simple and humble manner and without funds, its original object being to teach and help the destitute and outcast children of a single great city, rather than to train and reform transgressors against the laws of the State. It has not even the benefit of a special law, but was organized under a statute permitting any number of

similar schools to be formed within the State under its provisions, yet which might grow to be very dissimilar in their character. Its reformatory department has been the result of developments largely unforseen, but the necessity for this branch has been bravely met by its managers, and their solicitations for State aid in the work pressed upon them have met a generous response. It now has under care one hundred and fifty children, of whom about one-third may be classed as needing *strong* reformatory training in view of actual offenses. I cannot feel willing to classify *any* as "criminal," and I should have been glad had Miss Hall's paper been assigned to the department of preventive work among children, rather than that of "criminal reform," dealing as it does with girls taken under care below the age of sixteen years. Our school now occupies property worth about $70,000, and has three complete and well equipped family buildings, two connected and one detached, erected upon a tract of land about eight acres in extent. Our methods are almost precisely those described by Miss Hall, with the exception that our industrial classes have their work changed but *quarterly* instead of *monthly.*

We, too, believe that the strongest hope of all this work is in the influence of good and wise women over girls. They must be taught self-control, self-denial, and firmness of moral character, as well as delicacy and quickness of moral perception. We, too, use flowers, music, fancy work, books and pictures, as an incentive to womanly purity, and to cultivate taste and develop talent, but as all these things are given in profusion in the haunts of sin and shame, and as we *cannot* bestow the gratifications of taste, or fill the "desire of the eyes" or give beauty of environment equal to that luxury offered by the women who would lead them down to moral death, we cannot rely on such influences for

potent change of character, or teach them that *thus only* are wisdom's ways made pleasant. The Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls has been and is under the management of a board of women, several of whom were among its original corporators. We do not claim that this is in itself an excellence, or that women alone can do this work better than men and women together. The trouble has frequently been that the work of institutions was not been done by men, but was left to politicians. This, as we are now told, is being rapidly changed. Perhaps the best thing about women's work is that as soon as they are thoroughly in earnest about it, good men come to their assistance. We have never lacked the sympathy, advice and influence of the best men in our state as well as city.

I cannot close without saying that from facts known to me I *endorse* the statement of Hon. Richard Vaux, of Philadelphia, that often young married men are driven into profligacy and crime by the failure of their wives to make the home what it should be. I have known of many young mechanics in our large cities, married before they had contracted any expensive or vicious habits, going to work steadily from eight to ten hours a day, in dingy shops and factories, and bringing home the wages to the wife for the payment of the family bills. There are too many of these young wives who have not learned to expend money judiciously, nor do they know how to keep a little home bright and sweet, and frugally count the cost of necessary things before purchasing finery or seeking amusement. The public schools do not give domestic education, and the mother does all the work at home that her girl may attend school, and too often there and on the street she learns to envy and copy those who have plenty of money and time at disposal. If she marries young, the chances are that very soon we find the rooms are not clean, nor is the food well cooked when

her husband comes home. She "bangs" her hair, buys fashionable clothes, and goes to pic-nics and dances and matinées, and he finds the kettle unboiled and the floor unswept. What wonder that he goes to the saloon and enters on an apprenticeship to crime? What wonder that the children of such a pair grow up frivolous, vain, ignorant and idle? There is work *here* for the women of America—for all women in this conference, and I ask them to join in the effort to educate the *girls* of the poorer classes to be frugal housekeepers, good wives, judicious mothers and faithful women.

Mrs. Beveridge: I believe I had just declined to speak, pleading ignorance of the subject, and consequent inability to add to the knowledge of this Association. I have listened to Miss Hall's paper with the deepest interest but feel still less prepared than does Mrs. Cobb to discuss it, having so much less experience on the subject. My work has been more specifically preventive than reformatory, but as Mrs. Cobb has said, the two lines of work are so intimately blended as to seem almost identical.

In the Industrial School for Girls, with which I am connected, the preventive work is really reformatory, though it is not by organization a Reform School, nor has it a separate Reformatory Department.

Each State should have a training school for its dependent girls, and for those of vicious tendencies, and another for the reformation of youthful criminals. The young should never be hardened by association with the utterly depraved. From the vicious school of the jail and the mixed prison, girls naturally graduate into the ranks of the confirmed criminal. To save and reform those who would otherwise be the wives and mothers of paupers and future criminals, ranks second only in importance to the prevention of crime, and to neglect this work is against the teachings of Christianity, humanity or even a sound political economy.

The conference then took a recess till evening.

SEVENTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY EVENING, September 26, 1883.

The Conference met and listened to the papers which follow, with a brief discussion.

STATE PRISONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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At the International Penitentiary Congress, held in London in 1872, reports were made by representative men from nearly all the civilized and enlightened nations of the globe; and, following the reports, almost every phase of the subject of legal punishment for crime was discussed. Judging from conversation with many persons in public life, I conclude that the valuable information presented at that meeting is comparatively little known, and that there is a general absence of knowledge concerning the punishment of criminals, and the present management of State prisons in this country, as well also as of the government of penal institutions in other lands. While speaking mainly of the penal institutions of this country, I shall deem it not out of order, by way of illustration and comparison, to refer to those in other countries, especially where a similar system prevails as does here.

The mortality tables of the State prisons of the United States present most remarkable facts: The annual mortality rate per 1000 varies from zero (0) to one hundred and forty-two and a half (142.525), a difference, may we not say a contrast, which requires for justification, if that be possible, an explanation which we have not been able to find, and which no one has pretended to offer. It is not to be found in

THE SYSTEM OF PRISON MANAGEMENT,

Of which there are properly but two, the *separate* and the *congregate*. Of the latter there are various differences — scarcely two institutions managed alike. The former, the *separate* or *Individual Treatment System*, demands of every investigator a most thorough examination.

Fortunately the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania, which is a representative of this system, has been so thorough in its reports for many years, its tables so nearly exhaustive that the desired facts concerning this system can be ascertained.

THE NAME SOLITARY

is quite misleading when applied to this system, as the following statement will show: "The opinion generally entertained in regard to the prisoners in this institution is that they are kept in solitary confinement and not permitted to see anyone but their overseer; while, on the contrary, the inmates of this prison have more intercourse with proper persons from the outside world than any other prison in this country. They are permitted to see and converse with their family, however numerous they may be, once in three months, and oftener if necessary, and other persons whom the inspectors deem proper to admit; the Grand Jury of Philadelphia county, every month; the sheriffs of different counties bringing prisoners, visit all the prisoners from their respective counties each time they come; the moral instructors visit the prisoners continuously; they can have the pastor of their own choice, of any church, to visit them at all times; the warden sees and converses with each and every one in the prison at least twice in each month; the overseers are in constant intercourse with them; the overseer of this prison has the entire wants of the prisoners in his charge to provide for, instruct in his work, serve his meals, provide the clothing, all of which brings him in constant communication with the prisoners; the school teacher and librarian are constantly teaching the illiterate, or serving out and taking in books, which duties make their visits continuous. The female prisoners, nineteen in number, are regularly visited by the female branch of the prison society and other ladies of the Episcopal church. The Catholic women are visited by the Sisters of Mercy every Monday, as surely as Monday comes, and the matron who is constantly with them. The Catholic clergymen from St. Francis church visit the prisoners of their church whenever they can make it convenient to do so, 'which is very frequent,' and always come promptly whenever requested by a 'sick prisoner.' The gentlemen of the acting committee of the 'Prison Society,' continue their visits whenever it suits their convenience to do so, much to the gratification of the prisoners and satisfaction of the officers of the prison."

The above, from the warden of the Eastern Penitentiary, Pennsylvania, would seem to be sufficient to dispose of the erroneous notions so generally entertained of the Separate (falsely called Solitary) System. But an unbiased witness should also speak: Augustus H. Chapman, Esq., of Chico, California, one of the State Board of Prison Commissioners made, less than a year ago, an extended tour of inspection of the large prisons of the north, for the purpose of investigating prison management generally, and, on his return made a lengthy report to the Board and to the Governor. He said respecting the Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia: "I visited the Penitentiary in company with Hon. Richard Vaux, who for many years has been President of the Board of Managers of that institution, and to whose interest and zeal in eradicating many of the glaring evils in the treatment of criminals, is largely due the present effort in that prison in substituting solitary treatment, in place of the present generally adopted mode of mixing indiscriminately all classes in one great family of crime. To this prison and almost its entire system and management must be accorded an exception from anything I have or may say regarding other prisons. Isolation from contact, while in confinement, from other inmates, and to treat every one separately is the governing idea. With this as a foundation, a new system entirely distinct from the prevailing custom is organized and fully in operation. The cost of maintenance is a subordinate thought compared with what is contemplated in the effect on the convict and the criminal classes when prison life ceases. * * Upon entering the prison the convict is hooded and conducted to his cell where he receives his meals through a small opening in the grated door, and works at some light employment such as cigar making, knitting hosiery with hand machines, or caning chair seats. The entire prison is a model in construction, having ten tiers of cell-structure with broad corridors radiating from a central court, producing such a marked contrast from other prisons in its quiet and apparently lifeless occupation that cannot but leave the impression that here possibly may be maturing a new governing principle in the treatment of the most depraved classes that would place them beyond contaminating the better type of the prison element. I was accorded the privilege of examining any cell or class of prisoners that I desired, which I did to some extent with a view of learning the condition and effect of this system of treatment. Absolute security and control of every prisoner confined

is one of the first impressions that will strike the visitor. The entire absence of that controlling force in the way of guards and surplus assistance to force security, discipline and labor, as contrasted with other prisons, is everywhere apparent, and must reduce the cost of treatment nearly or quite one-half of the average cost in prison treatment. The prevailing impression that this solitary life of the convict would, in many cases, produce insanity is entirely at variance with what I saw or could learn from numbers that I visited in the cells and from other inquiry. * * My observation in handling crime leads me very largely to the conclusion that simply incarceration and labor is only one general remedy for every disease. The physician treating every patient with one general dose would be as consistent as one general application for crime."

These statements would seem to be sufficient to dispel the two false notions, viz.: the one of being alone, without sufficient communication with proper persons; the other, of the tendency to insanity from loneliness, as urged against this system. This latter thought is also refuted by the facts in the annual reports of the institution.

What can be the possible substantial objection to the separate system? Is not the first and popular objection that, "it does not pay?" This, as offered, can only mean in dollars and cents; and generally it is made by those who have given but a limited examination to the whole subject. Few of the State prisons show acurately a net profit for the year, and in the cases of those which do, the amount is so small as to be of little value alone as an argument for or against a system of prison management. Of what force is the argument that an institution has a profit of five thousand or ten thousand dollars a year (of such there are very few) and the loss to the state be a hundred thousand from ex-convicts, many of whom might have been so far reformed in habits of industry, in trade-knowledge, and in self-reliance (not to speak of higher principles) as to have been returned to society safe and useful citizens, rather than more dangerous to both life and property of the public. The money argument is, perhaps, the weakest that can be offered for or against any prison system; yet, even that is in favor of the system which prevents crime and diminishes the number of criminals. It costs on an average in Ohio, $151.86 for each conviction and delivery to the penitentiary.

Taking eight of the largest prisons of the United States we find the following financial exhibit:

State.	Place.	Average number of convicts.	Cost of daily ration.	Deficiency.	Surplus.
New York.....	Sing Sing....	1,534	"Rations" $.152		$48,194 73
New York. ..	Auburn.....	930	"Rations" .131	$2,692 27	
New York.....	Clinton .. .	519	"Rations" .166	39,244 88	
	Total av'rge.	2,983	.....	.....	6,257 58
Pennsylvania..	East. Penity.	981	"Support and maintenance"..... .092	27,560 43	
Ohio.....	Columbus....	1,360	"Subsistence". ... .175		18,800 00
Illinois.....	Joliet	1,461	"Subsistence"..... .130	2,002 21	
California	San Quentin.	1,200	"Subsistence"..... .134		
Missouri.....	Jefferson C'y	1,262	"Subsistence"..... .136		25,000 00

Concerning the last we find the following official statement:

"The earnings of the prisons have fallen but little short, comparatively, of the amount expended for the maintenance of said penitentiary for the past two years (1881–82), not including the pay of officers and employes." This statement is of value for more than the present purpose.

The above table does not give, taken together, an encouraging view of the financial success of the congregate system, or of the money argument in its favor.

There is as great a diversity in the form and manner of making

THE REPORTS

as there is in the general management of the prisons. From some of them it is almost impossible to obtain the most important facts. One report of nearly three hundred pages is occupied largely with a list of the names of the individual prisoners received and discharged; and a list of the several bills — receipts and disbursements — by the month for the entire period covered; and nothing worthy the name of statistics, the money thought seeming to have overshadowed and crowded out essential matters, and yet we find the indefinite statement that, "the earnings have fallen but little short, comparatively." Another, by contrast, having only one hundred and nine pages, reporting twice the number of convicts, four institutions having earnings and expenditures alone amounting to nearly half a million dollars, is brief, ex-

plicit, yet full — a model of clearness, brevity and completeness respecting the financial condition of the prisons of the State. Such a report reflects the highest credit on the business ability of the chief superintendent, and ought to satisfy the most exacting demands in this respect. Still others emanating from institutions, having fixed organization and management, are replete with statistics of great value to philosophers and all students of penology. Between these are to be found every variety of reports, some fair examples, and others simply absurd in discrepancy between the reports of the different departments of the same institution, and a general carelessness. Having examined all the reports with more or less care, I speak from personal knowledge; and almost invariably when there is a careless report there has been found evidence of laxity, if not bad management in general. It seems to me the good examples should be copied; for there are a number of them worthy of high commendation. Attention is called to the subject here to provoke, if possible, an improvement in the future. As much study is necessary to the preparation of an able, instructive, and yet brief sermon, so is much labor as well as ability needed in the production of a full yet brief report. Neither the one nor the other can be accomplished without industry.

INDUSTRY.

After John Howard had spent considerable time in visiting the prisons of his native land, he went, in April, 1775, to the continent to study the subject of prisons there. The great discovery that he made on that visit, as it seems to me, was the value of industry as a preventive of, and reformative from crime. He saw and was quick to understand, and with characteristic candor to acknowledge and adopt, the maxim, "Make them diligent and they will be honest." *

The following is equally true: *Idleness is at once the soil and the seed of crime.* Howard learned from the Hollanders, or saw practised, almost if not every principle of the highest form of penal science.

I. The great preventive to crime and to the necessity of a great prison population, is the training up of the children of the poor to industry.

II. The abandonment of the policy of getting rid of criminals by transportation, or by incarceration which

*See lecture of Dr. Bellows on Life, Character and Services of John Howard.

has no other end than their safe keeping; in short the use of labor considered as a means of the prisoner's own improvement.

III. The use of moral and religious instruction as a means of reforming prisoners and preparing them for sober and honest lives when they are released from prison.

IV. The law of kindness.

V. Careful graduation of penalties.

VI. Encouragements to reformation and industry by discharging the obedient and reforming prisoners before the expiration of their term.

Let it be remembered that these principles, practiced a hundred years ago, were observed and promulgated by the great prison apostle. Industry for the child, free at home, and for the prisoner incarcerated, is just as valuable now as it was in 1775, or three thousand years ago, when Solomon said: "The desire of the slothful killeth him, for his hands refuse to labor." "The soul of the sluggard desireth and hath nothing." "Be thou diligent to know the state of thy flocks, and look well to thy herds." "Seest thou a man diligent in his business he shall stand before kings" (shall be honored.)

Paul commanded: "If any man would not work, neither should he eat." Everywhere in the sacred word diligence is commended as a virtue; on the contrary, slothfulness — idleness — is condemned as a vice. "Thou shalt eat the labor of thy hands." This is an old truth, and is and must forever be recognized by family or state governments and by prison managements. Isaac V. Baker, Jr., Superintendent of New York State prisons, to whose reports I have had occasion to refer, and which I heartily commend, thus speaks within the present year upon this subject: "Idleness is the chief primary cause of most criminality." It produces poverty and want, and these lead to dishonesty, theft, robbery, and if necessary to supply the demand, a step farther — murder.

REWARDS.

Prisoners are men, as much so when in prison as when out, and are actuated by motives and affected by influences just as before. If it is once made plain that the object of the powers over the prisoner is to obtain the last effort he can put forth, whether sick or well, for the profit of lessee, contractor or state authority, he will have little interest in his work, will do as little as possible, and will be ready for any outbreak, conspiracy or desperate undertaking, to escape. A small share in the

profits for the benefit of the prisoner or his family; a shortening of his time on account of good conduct — obedience to prison rules and faithful work — a system of promotion to more privileges, will have more influence in awakening in him self-respect and respect for the laws of his state, and to prepare him to become a safe, respectable and honest citizen, than all the solitary dungeons, lashes, or starvation that can be inflicted upon him. Let me not be misunderstood at this point; I speak of the many, not of the few who will never be anything but criminals in or out of prison. The worse the

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the larger will be the desperate class when the men go out, and the less the reformatory influences of the prison on the lives of its inmates. Is it probable that if authority be given to a company of men, lessees, over a prison with its hundreds of convicts, for ten or fifteen years, that due attention will be given to schools, rewards, promotions, or to extra pay for extra labor? We think it not at all probable; and the present reports from the states where that system is in operation, offer no hope for it. In one of the Gulf states, Texas, in the two years 1880-81, over 800 men were received under the age of twenty-five. In the same state, thirty-three (33) were killed by shooting during the same period; and the annual mortality rate was 47.602 per 1,000, more than two and a half times the average mortality of the United States, including infant mortality.

In another state, having the contract and branch system, the mortality was 57.438, more than three times the average of the whole country by the last census. Is this any wonder considering the state of affairs as set forth by the warden: "I found," he says, "the prisons where convicts were confined in most instances totally unfit for the purpose for which they were intended. They were built, in most cases, with a view to the strictest economy." Yes, as it will almost universally be found where the lease or large branch-contract system prevails. Farther: "No regard was had to the important question of ventilation, and the prison frequently contained twice as many convicts as its dimensions would warrant. They were filthy as a rule as dirt could make them, and both prisons and prisoners were infested with vermin. The bedding was totally unfit for use. I found that convicts were excessively and in some cases cruelly punished; they were poorly clothed and fed; that the sick were neglected, insomuch as no hospi-

tal had been provided, they being confined incells with the well convicts. * * * The prisoners had no adequate water supply, and I verily believe there were men in them who had not washed their faces in twelve months. In visiting the different prisons I found the men were so much intimidated that it was next to impossible to get from them anything touching their treatment." The physician of the same state prison describes the condition of the sick men brought from the outside prisons. The description is such as not to be read before a miscellaneous audience. He closes his remarks by saying: "As a rule they looked like they had not washed themselves or their clothing for months. * * * In short, cleanliness was a stranger to their persons." This condition was found in the United States less than a year ago. Examples of utter disregard of

SANITARY CONDITIONS

can be found in multiplied cases. *The mere diffusion of gases is not ventilation.* Take one case as an example, Tennessee: The yearly mortality was 34.536 to the 1000; the climate mild and pleasant, not extreme south, not extreme north. "The number of cells is 352, in most of which are two persons confined at night. * * The grated window, 2½ by 13 inches in the doors of the cells, covered with latticed iron is the only means of ventilation, except small flues at the rear of each cell that extends up to the top of the wing, most of which flues are obstructed by accumulation of mortar and other debris." The physician of the same institution says in his report: "The cells are too small for one man to occupy with comfort, yet nearly every cell has two men in them, rendering the air breathed almost insupportable. The number of cubic feet of air per man under the present arrangement will average 125 feet; in the modern built cells which are up to the spirit of the age the average is 900 feet." The Warden speaks as follows: "The rooms now occupied as hospital are small and poorly ventilated. There are none of the modern applications for cleanliness or comfort. The convalescents, the sick, the dying and the dead are all confined in those small ill-ventilated rooms. There is no place for dressing the dead except in the presence of all the sick in hospital, or in the wing in the presence of more than two hundred convicts. Nothing can be removed from the hospital during the night. All night soil remains in the buckets in the hospital during

the night." Here follows a remarkable passage of commendation of the co-authority: "The lessees and officers have done all in their power with reference to the health of the convicts, and they have succeeded admirably, as shown by the physician's report." Yet there were 49 deaths at the penitentiary in two years with less than 700 men, a mortality rate of over 35 to the 1000; and of over 34 to the 1000 for the whole convict force of the State. What better are these cells than those of the old Maine prison built 60 years ago? "Those cells were 9 feet long, 4½ feet wide and 10 feet high (deep) covered with stone. They had an aperture in the external wall of *eight by two inches*, for the admission of air, and an aperture on the top of 22 by 24 inches for the admission of light and air and for the admission of the prisoners."

What a pit in which to bury a man! And yet, it was pronounced by learned men as very good. By way of illustration, showing that advance has been made and a high degree of real comfort (if not perfection) has been reached, I may quote a few words from my third semi-annual Report of the Southern Illinois penitentiary: "The cell-house is three hundred and eleven (311) feet long, fifty-four (54) feet wide and forty-three (43) feet to the top of the cornice, having fourteen (14) windows, six (6) feet wide, and about twenty-five (25) feet high on each side. The cell-block within the cell-house is four stories high, with cells on each side, numbering in all four hundred (400), and each having a capacity of about two hundred and fifty (250) cubic feet, arranged each for two men. Every cell has artificial or forced ventilation, produced by a fan driven by steam; and, in addition, a ventilating flue leads from the little closet or recess containing the night bucket, to the top of the cell-house. Hence, it would seem that every modern improvement had been added for the sanitary perfection of the cells." Without pure air it is impossible to enjoy a high degree of health, whatever else may be given. To this should be added pure water, sunlight, good diet, sufficient clothing and all the means necessary for cleanliness. As long as a man has a right to live, even as a convict, he has a right to the means necessary to the preservation of his health, and an, "indefeasible right to be protected against conditions which will necessarily impair his physical well being." "Deprivation of the physiological use of the natural elements, as fresh air, sunlight and wholesome water does not form part of the penal code of the State (N. Y.). On the contrary, the State is bound to secure to the pris

oner these natural conditions on which health depends."—*New York Prison Association.* The effort should be to maintain the purity of the air in the cell-house equal, as nearly as possible, to the atmosphere outside. This should be the standard. Beyond this we cannot hope to go. This can be approximated so nearly by forced and by natural ventilation continued during the twenty-four hours, that the peculiar prison odor will be scarcely perceptible. This can be reached only by proper attention on the part of officers who appreciate the importance of the subject, and are faithful to their duty. Scrupulous cleanliness of the cells; airing of the bedding; thorough washing of the night-buckets (which, by the way, should have no wood about them); constant vigilance in exterminating all vermin; and regularly required bathing, once or twice a week in warm climates and in the summer months, and once or twice a month in winter; pure drinking water, of which cistern water, filtered through a brick partition wall in the cistern, is generally the best. A wholesome dietary, easily digested and frequently varied, with plenty of vegetables, and its preparation entrusted to those only who are competent. and feel both real pride and an interest in the work; a suitable change of diet for those who are affected with very imperfect digestion, or are debilitated from whatever cause; sufficient clothing for comfort and to protect from sudden changes of weather; daily labor for ten hours during summer, avoiding either idleness or over-work; prompt attention to the complaining or sick, with a view to prevention before a cure becomes necessary; such a system of sanitary rules, rigidly enforced by the chief prison authorities, will greatly diminish the difficulties of

PRISON DISCIPLINE,

whether the system be that of *leasing,* the *contract,* the *congregate,* or the *individual treatment,* or even the indefinite sentence of Sir Walter Crofton.

Humane treatment though rigidly just, with constant labor, tends to contentment and quiet; while on the contrary, harsh, unjust, not to speak of cruel treatment, is as keenly felt by the man in prison as the same individual outside. We have no doubt that many of the revolts and much of the destruction of prison property, as well attempts on the lives of officers are directly traceable to injustice and cruel treatment. It is true that the opportunities of the congregate system and the commingling of the different classes of criminals in the cells

give occasion for the perfecting of plans and conspiracies to be accomplished either before or after leaving the prison. To begin at the very foundation of efficient

PRISON ADMINISTRATION,

the officers and employes should be appointed because of personal qualification; and their tenure of office should depend solely upon faithful and efficient discharge of duty; but in no case should the position be jeoparded by every political change, or change in state administration. This constant displacement, or uncertainty of positition, is either preventive or destructive of the ablest management of the state penal institutions. With it the best men can seldom afford the risk of uncertainty; and give their time and energy to the study of the subject in all its bearings. *Permanency* in the *various appointments*, whether of commissioners, inspectors, wardens or officers, is *absolutely essential to the greatest success.* The organization having been effected, the ability and improvement of the prison administration will depend largely upon the study of the subject in an *officer's school.* The testimony, wherever this has been tried is in favor of its value; in some cases the high degree of discipline being ascribed to the maintenance of this school. A State Board over all, and irremovable except by impeachment, might be of the highest importance.

Implicit obedience should be required on the part of the *convicts.* This, however, can never be reached or maintained where manifest injustice, inhumanity or cruel punishment are practised; it is not in the nature of things where men have been raised in freedom. They may be kept under for a time by bolts, and bars, and the lash, but, like the smothered volcano, after a time they will burst forth in fury — conspiracy, insurrection, destruction of property and of life. This has occurred again and again, even within this year, and will be repeated.

It is the rarest thing to find an insurrection in prisons where justice is meted out. Ex-Gov. Chas. P. Johnson of Missouri has recently exposed affairs in his State in a fearless manner, denouncing what he regards as barbarities, and excessive and cruel treatment. Governor Blackburn of Kentucky has been equally courageous.

LABOR

is essential to either discipline or reformation, and is a measure of justice, economy and health; and should be

imperative in all prison systems. It should be of such variety as to advance the man in trade-knowledge in such a manner as to fit him to earn more easily, and obtain more readily a living for himself and family when discharged; but it should not be of one kind only, at which he may not be able to obtain employment.

To congregate all classes of criminals, old and young, the vile and monstrous with the misguided youth of inexperience, the highwayman and murderer with the man who stole something to eat or to wear or to pay a debt, is utterly destitute of philosophy or common sense; it never ought and never can receive the sanction of thinking men, and should not be practiced in a penal or reformatory State institution.

"*The classes of prisoners* should be vigorously kept separate" is the language of the New York Prison Association, with which sentiment all must finally agree.

The Individual Treatment System does seem beyond all question to offer the greatest facilities for accomplishing the desired objects and ends of improvement, concerning which nearly all students of penology are in accord. They may differ somewhat concerning the methods of reaching the ends; but the principle of treating individual convicts by the *individual system* must grow in favor as time goes on and evidence accumulates respecting the proper management of this system. It seems to me to be in harmony with every principle involved in the entire subject, except the unworthy one of a few dollars for the immediate present, or of profit to a few individuals.

MORTALITY OF THE STATE PRISONS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1882.

BY DR. H. Z. GILL.

No.	Latitude.		Location of prison.	State.	Daily average number of convicts.	Deaths during 1882.	Mortality rate per annum per 1,000.	Deaths.			Sent to insane asylum.	Mortality rate for —— years.	Remarks.
								From disease	From other causes.	From consumption.			
1	45		Salem	Oregon	181	2	11.049	1	1	0	1	6 deaths in 5 years.	One death from G. S. wound in attempting to escape.
2	45		Stillwater	Minnesota	250	2	8.000	2	0	1	1	5.22 for 4 years.	
3	44	51	(Clinton) Dan'mora	New York	519	17	32.755	17	0	4	4	22.061 for 4 years.	
4	44		Thomaston	Maine	166	6	36.145	5	1	4	1	20.450 for 5 years.	Suicide, one.
5	43	35	Waupun	Wisconsin	336	3	9.226	2	1	0	0	10.4 for 11 years.	Murderin cell, one.
6	43	30	Windsor	Vermont	120	3	12.50	2	1	1	1	19.713 for 4 years.	Suicide, one. No fever since building sewer, bad before.
7	43	15	Concord	New Hampshire	136.5	7	51.282	7	0	3	0	55 538 for 10 years	
8	43		Auburn	New York	930	20	21.505	19	1	5	9	17½ for 65 years.	Suicide by hanging, one.
9	42	25	Concord	Massachusetts	665	14	21.052	14	0	9	8		
10	42	20	Jackson	Michigan	670	8	11.940	7	1	3	0		One died from cancer.
11	42	12	Sherborn (women)	Massachusetts	222	0	0.000	0	0	0	4		Two deaths, infants.
12	42	10	Anamosa	Iowa	203	0	0.000	0	0	0	0	6.288 for 5 years.	
13	41	45	Michigan City	Indiana	621	9	14.492	7	2	3	0	8.916 for 10 years.	Suicide, two.
14	41	40	Wethersfield	Connecticut	217	4	18.433	4	0	1	4	15.19 for 10 years.	Malarial causes, three.
15	41	30	Joliet	Illinois	1461.5	16	10.947	16	0	13	9	12.651 for 10 years.	
16	41	30	Cranston	Rhode Island	91	4	43.956	4	0	0	1		
17	41	10	Sing Sing	New York	1534	14	9.185	12	2	4	11	10.130 for 4 years.	Stabbed two.
18	41		Lincoln	Nebraska	200	0	0.000	0	0	0	0	5.316 for 6 years.	One death in 1881. Rate 2.5 for two years.
19	40	30	Ft. Madison	Iowa	370	1	2.701	1	0	1	0	9.586 for 10 years.	
20	40	30	Allegheny City	Pennsylvania	649	5	7.695	5	0	3	1	9.333 for 5 years.	
21	40	15	Trenton	New Jersey	831	19	22.864	19	0	6	3		Bad ventilation.
22	40		Columbus	Ohio	1306	25	19.142	21	4	8	14	14.484 for 3 years.	Suicide, three; killed, one.
23	40		Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	981	21	21.406	19	2	9	1	18.948 for 5 years.	Suicide two.
24	39	45	Moundsville	West Virginia	210	1	4.076	1	0	0	1		
25	39	45	Indianapolis (wo'n)	Indiana	192.7	1	5.189	1	0	0	0	5.259 for 2 years.	Deaths 17 in 10 years.
26	39	30	Lansing	Kansas	655	7	10.687	6	1	1	2	11.082 for 5 years.	"Average." of 35 less th'n 1881
27	39	20	Carson City	Nevada	122	0	0.000	0	0	0	0	21.818 for 4 years.	One death in 1881. Rate 7.092
28	39	15	Baltimore	Maryland	510	6	11.764	5	1	0	0	26.08 for 15 years.	
			Total above 39° not including Delaware		14,349.7	215	14.982						

29	39			Delaware	25	? 0							Counties { New Castle, ?, 8.5. Sussex 9, Death 0. Kent 7. 5, Death 0.
30	38	40	Folsom	California	291.2	7	24.034	5	2		1	22.390 for 2 years.	Opened July 15, 1880. Mortality rate, 20.746.
31	38	30	Jefferson City	Missouri	1,262	19	15.055	17	2	4	14	26.072 for 10 years.	Three insane yet on hand.
32	38	20	Jeffersonville	Indiana	564	14	24.822	13	1	0	0	44.39 for 60 years.	One G.S.W. Mortality rate for 7 years, 10.752.
33	38	15	Frankfort	Kentucky	950	28	29.368					23.903 for 3 years.	Mort. rate on Rail R., 76.782.
34	38		San Quentin	California	1,199.1	14	11.675	12	2	5	5	15.999 for 3 years.	Suicides, two.
35	37	50	Chester	Illinois	570.3	4	7.013	3	1	0	2	21.064 for 4 years.	Mort. rate for 1883, ending Sept. 30: from disease, 5.-260; 1 drowned by accident
36	37	30	Cañon City	Colorado	251	4*	7.968	3	1	0	1	4.762 for 4 years.	Biennial report, G.S.W., 1.
37	37	30	Richmond	Virginia	956	33	34.518	30	3	2	?		Mort. rate on Rail R., 63.527; G. S. W., one; accidents, two.
38	36	10	Nashville	Tennessee	1,285.5	44	34.536	40	4	8	?	47.665 for 6 years.	Seven killed in two (2) years.
39	35	30	Raleigh	North Carolina	988	71	71.862	62	9	?	?		G.S.W., three; killed, four.
40	34	45	Little Rock	Arkansas	591	30	50.761	23	7	4	?		Nature of the seven accidents not given.
41	34		Columbia	South Carolina	803	41	51.058	38	3	5	?		Drowned one, killed two.
42	33		Wetumpka	Alabama	531	31	57.438	26	5	1	?	57.438 for 2 years.	Suicide, one. "Unknown" sixteen, in two years.
43	33		"Farming out"	Georgia	1,214.5	22	9.057	18	4	0	?	26.382 for 6 years.	G. S. W., two, explosion, one, falling slate, one.
44	32	15	Jackson	Mississippi (1881)	876	68	72.62	57	11	0	?	77.520 for 2 years.	
45	32		Rusk	Texas									Opened January, 1883.
46	30	45	Huntsville	Texas	2,151	205*	47.602	161*	44	9	3	58.022 for 4 years.	G.S.W., in two years, thirty-three!!!
47	30	30	Baton Rouge	Louisiana (1881)	645.5	92	142.525	88	4		?	106.536 for 2 years.	Four killed in two (2) years by G.S.W.
48	30	30	Tallahassee	Florida	142	10	70.422					85.388 for 2 years.	
			Total below 39° including Dela		15,296.1	632.5	41.341						Obtained by deducting from the death column of one-half total deaths of Texas and Colorado.
			Grand total for one year only		29,645.8	847.5	28.587						
New York City, Census 1882							29						
Chicago, Illinois, Census 1882							23.6						
St. Louis, Missouri, Estimated 1882							19.6						
United States, Census 1880							18.2						

* 2 years.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE.

It will be seen that the prisons south of the Ohio river, or south of 39°, have, as a rule, a much higher mortality rate than those farther north. There seems to be no good reason for this state of affairs. It cannot be explained on the ground of climate; for Chester, Illinois, immediately on the Mississippi river, and below 38°, has the lowest mortality of any prison having 400 or more convicts. In a few cases north, to wit: Concord, New Hampshire; Thomaston, Maine, and Dannemora, New York, the number of convicts was comparatively small, and the mortality from consumption large, making a high rate of mortality. In the last case the high rate is explained by receiving invalids from the other prisons of the state. Mortality from consumption is known to be high in the New England States. Aside from region of country, or some special cause, as given for the Clinton prison, if the mortality is high from consumption, the proof is almost positive that the sanitary conditions are bad, especially so in the ventilation of the cells. The cases at Trenton, New Jersey, Columbus, Ohio; Joliet, Illinois; Nashville, Tennessee, are proof of this general proposition. In the first, the ventilation is officially reported to be bad; in the second there is no ventilation, properly speaking, only the diffusion of gases, even in the new cell-house, built ten years ago; and in the third the air is horribly offensive, partly from defective drainage, and partly from insufficient ventilation.

But where shall we find explanation or justification for the fearful mortality beginning with Virginia and closing with Florida (with the remarkable and honorable exception of Georgia), save in the existence of a system worthy only of the dark ages, a disgrace to humanity and to the several states of this proud nation, where such a condition of inhumanity is permitted to continue from year to year. It is only another example of what men will do to their fellow men when permitted by political rings, party factions, and popular indifference. Neither individuals nor corporations may be intrusted with the health or lives of convicts for a number of years without the constant inspection by independent Boards, clothed with ample authority to amend all contracts for violations, and to dismiss all officers or employes for sufficient cause. The Contract System of convict labor requires very careful guarding; but the Lessee System should not be tolerated in a civilized land.

THE CONVICT LEASE SYSTEM IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

BY GEO. W. CABLE.

A MODEL PRISON.

Here and there in the United States a penal institution may be found that fairly earns the pride with which it is pointed out by the surrounding community. In the whole country there may be four or five such. The visitor to them admires the fitness of their architecture.

"Yes," the warden replies; "this is not a house of pleasure, and so we have not made it pretty. It is not an abode of crime, and so we have not made it ugly. It is not a place where men *seek* justice, and therefore we have not made it grandiose and majestic. But it is the house of chastisement — of chastening punishment — and so it is made solemn, severe, and calm."

The visitor praises the grave and silent decency of all the internal appointments.

"Yes," responds the warden; "the peace and dignity of the State are here asserting themselves over the person of the prisoner who has violated them; there is no more room here for merriment or confusion than for strife."

The visitor extols the perfection of the sanitary arrangements.

"Yes," says the warden; "when the criminal was free and his life at his own disposal, he took no such care of it as this. He probably lived a sort of daily suicide. If he shortened his days, the State was, presumably, not to blame. But if we by malice or neglect shorten his days here, where he is our captive, we bring upon the State both blame and shame. For his life is in our custody, just as the clothing is with which he came here; the State, through its courts, has distinctly declined to tamper with it, and holds it subject to be returned to his own keeping, at the expiration of his confinement, in as good order as that in which it was received, the inevitable wear and tear of time alone excepted. Can a State maintain its peace and dignity as it should, that commits breaches of trust inside its very prisons?"

The visitor remarks that a wise benevolence is necessary even toward bad men.

"But," says the other, "it is not merely benevolence to bad men that puts in these elaborate sanitary appliances; it is the necessity of upholding the integrity and honor of the State."

The visitor shows his surprise at the absence of all the traditional appliances for the correction of the refractory. "Yet be certain," is the rejoinder, "a discipline, sure, prompt, and effectual meets every infraction of rules. How else could we have this perfection of order? But it is a discipline whose punishments are free from brutalizing tendencies, increasing dispassionately as the culprit's passions increase, and relenting only when he has repented." *

The visitor is impressed with the educative value of the labor performed by the inmates.

"Yes," says the warden; "send a man out from here with knowledge of a trade, and may be he will come back, but the chances are he will not. Send him away without a trade, and may be he will not come back, but the chances are he will. So, for society's sake — in the community's interest and for its safety — these men are taught certain trades that they cannot turn to bad account. We do not teach burglars locksmithing."

Yet the visitor takes a momentary alarm.

"You put the housebreaker and the robber, the sneak-thief and the pickpocket into open competition with honest men in the community around them."

"Exactly," responds the other; "trying to live without competing in the fields of productive labor is just the essence of the crimes for which they were sent here. We make a short end of that."

The visitor looks with pleased interest at the statistical records of the clerk's office.

"We could not call our duty done without these," is the warden's response. "These are the keys to the study of the cause and prevention of crime. By these we weigh our own results. By these we uncover not only the convict and his crime, but society's and the State's own sins of omission and commission, whose fruits are these crimes and these criminals."

"After all," at length the visitor says, "tell me one thing more. Here where a prisoner is safe from fire and plague and oppression and temptation and evil companionship, and is taught thrift and skill, and has only to

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* "Good order and discipline have been maintained during the past year. There has not been one case of insubordination or g oss viola tion of any of the rules of the prison government; not one case that required punishment, either for the purpose of maintaining discipline or as penalty for an offense committed by an individual prisoner."— "Annual Report of the Inspectors of the State Penitentiary, Eastern District, Pennsylvania, 1882," p. 89.

submit to justice and obey right rules, where is his punishment? How is this punishment at all?"

And the warden makes answer with question for question: "Had you a deformed foot, and an iron mold were made to close around it and press it into symmetrical shape and hold it so, would you ask where is the agony? The punishment here is the punishment of a deformed nature forced into superficial symmetry. It is the punishment that captivity is to unrestraint; that subordination and enforced self-control are to ungoverned passion and inordinate vanity and pride; that routine is to the love of idle adventure; that decorum is to the love of orgies; that temperance is to the love of drink; that loneliness is to the social and domestic impulses; that solitude and self-communion are to remorse. It is all the losses and restraints of banishment without one of its liberties. Nothing tempers it but the repentance and reform which it induces, and these temper it just in degree as they are genuine and thorough."

"And your actual results?" asks the visitor.

"Of those who come here for their first offense, a majority return to honest life."

"You have a model prison."

"No," says the warden, "not yet."

THE THEORY OF SELF-SUPPORT.

Now, the number of such prisons in America, we say, may be counted on the fingers of one hand. Communities rarely allow the prison its rightful place among their investments of public money for the improvement of public morals and public safety. Its outlays are begrudged because they do not yield cash incomes equal to their cash expenses. Legislatures, public schools, courts of justice, and departments of police are paid for by the people in the belief that they will and must be made to yield conditions and results necessary to be obtained, for whose absence no saving of public wealth can atone, and that ultimately, though indirectly, even on their pecuniary side, they are emphatically profitable. But when it is asked by what course of reasoning the prison is left out of this count, there is heard only, as one may say, a motion to adjourn. Society is not ready for the question.

The error is a sad one and is deeply rooted. And yet it is a glaring one. A glance at the subject is enough to show that unless the money laid out in prisons is devoted to some end far better than the mere getting it

back again, then legislatures, public schools, courts, and police are all shortened in their results, and a corresponding part of their expenses is rightly chargeable to the mismanaged prison. The prison is an inseparable part of the system; and the idea that the prison must first of all pay back dollar for dollar, if logically pushed on through the system, would close public schools, adjourn courts of justice, dissolve legislatures, and disband police. For not one of these could exist on a "self-supporting" basis.

Oftener, probably, than from any other one source, this mistake springs from the idolent assumption that the call to make prisons what they ought to be is merely an appeal to public benevolence. It was so, in their earlier turn, with public hospitals and public schools; and the effect was similar. For only here and there, if at all, did they find their best efficiency or a true public support, until society rose to the noble modesty that recognized them, not as public charities but as public interests. The management of a State's convicts is a public interest that still waits for the same sort of recognition and treatment. In many directions this has been partly conceded, but there are few, if any, other state executives who would undertake to echo the lately uttered words of that one who said:

> "In neither of the penitentiaries of this state has there ever been an attempt yet made to administer them on the vulgar, wicked, unworthy consideration of making them self-sustaining. In neither of them has it been forgotten that even the convict is a human being, and that his body and soul are not so the property of the state that both may be crushed out in the effort to reimburse the state the cost of his scanty food, and, at the end of his term, what then is left of him be dismissed, an enemy of human society.

The two dissimilar motives here implied govern the management of most American prisons. In a few the foremost effort is to make them yield, by a generous, judicious control, every result worth, to society's best interests, the money paid for it; that is, to treat them as a public interest. In a much larger number it is to seek such, and only such good results as may be got without an appreciable excess of expense over income: that is, to treat them as appeals — and unworthy appeals — to the public charity. One motive demands first of all the largest results, the other the smallest net expense. They give rise to two systems of management, each of which, in practice, has its merits and drawbacks, and is more or less effectively carried out, according to the hands and minds under which it falls. These are known as the "Public Accounts System" and the "Contract Sys-

tem." Each has its advocates among students of prison science, and it is not the province of this paper further to press the contrast between them. It is truly the country's misfortune that in several states there is a third system in operation, a knowledge of whose real workings can fill the mind of any good citizen only with astonishment and indignant mortification.

By either of the two systems already named, the prison remains in charge of state officials, the criminals are kept continually within the prison walls, and the prison discipline rests intact. All the appliances for labor — the workshops, tools, engines and machinery — are provided by the state, and the convicts labor daily, prosecuting various industries, in the Public Accounts System under their official overseers, and in the Contract System under private contractors. In degrees of more or less excellence, these industrial operations, whether under official directors or contractors, are carefully harmonized with those features of the prison management that look to the secure detention, the health, the discipline and the moral reformation of the prisoner, the execution of the law's sentence upon him in its closest and furthest intent, and, if possible, his return to the outer world, when he must be returned, a more valuable and less dangerous man, impressed with the justice of his punishment, and yet a warning to evil-doers. It is the absence of several of these features, and sometimes of all, that makes the wide difference between these methods on the one hand and the mode of prison management known as the "Lease System" on the other.

EVIL PRINCIPLES OF THE LEASE SYSTEM.

Its features vary in different regions. In some the state retains the penitentiary in charge of its officers, and leases out the convicts in gangs of scores or hundreds to persons who use them anywhere within the state boundaries in the execution of private enterprises or public or semi-public works. In a few cases the penitentiary itself, its appliances and its inmates, all and entire, are leased, sometimes annually or biennially, sometimes for five, and sometimes for ten or even twenty years, and the convicts worked within or without the prison walls, and near to or distant from them, as various circumstances may regulate, being transferred from place to place in companies under military or semi-military guard, and quartered in camps or herded in stockades, convenient to their fields of labor. In two or three states the Government's abandonment

of its trust is still more nearly complete, the terms of the lease going so far as to assign to the lessees the entire custody and discipline of the convicts, and even their medical and surgical care. But a clause common to all these prison leases is that which allows a portion, at least, and sometimes all of the prisoners to be worked in parts of the state remote from the prison. The fitness of some lessees to hold such a trust may be estimated from the following letters:

"OFFICE OF LESSEE ARKANSAS STATE PENITENTIARY,
"LITTLE ROCK, ARKANSAS, January 12, 1882.

"DEAR SIR: Your postal of request to hand; sorry to say cannot send you report, as there are none given. The business of the Arkansas State Penitentiary is of a private nature, and no report is made to the public. Any private information relative to the men will be furnished upon application for same.

"Very respectfully,
"ZEB. WARD, Lessee.
"Z. J."

"OFFICE OF LESSEE ARKANSAS STATE PENITENTIARY.
"LITTLE ROCK, ARKANSAS, July 2. 1882.

"DEAR SIR: Yours of —— date to hand and fully noted. You inquiries, if answered, would require much time and labor. I am sole lessee and work all the convicts, and of course the business of the prison is my private business. My book-keeper is kept quite busy with my business, and no time to make out all the queries you ask for. Similar information is given to the Legislature once in two years.

"Respectfully,
"ZEB. WARD."

The wonder is that such a scheme should not, upon its face, be instantly rejected by any but the most sordid and short-sighted minds. It is difficult to call its propositions less than an insult to the intelligence and humanity of any enlightened community. It was the Governor of Kentucky, who, in 1873, justly said to his state legislature: "I cannot but regard the present system under which the state penitentiary is leased and managed as a reproach to the commonwealth. . . . It is the system, not the officer acting under it, with which I fnd fault." *

This system springs primarily from the idea that the possession of a convict's person is an opportunity for the state to make money; that the amount to be made is whatever can be wrung from him; that for the officers of the state to waive this opportunity is to impose upon the clemency of a tax-paying public; and that without regard

*Quoted in "Transactions of the National Prison Congress, St Louis, 1874," p. 325.

to moral or mortal consequences, the penitentiary, whose annual report shows the largest cash balance paid into the State's Treasury, is the best penitentiary. The mitigations that arise in its practice through the humane or semi-humane sentiments of keepers and guards, and through the meagerest of legislation are few, scanty and rare; and in the main the notion is clearly set forth and followed, that a convict, whether pilferer or murderer, man, woman or child, has almost no human right that the state is bound to be at any expense to protect.

It hardly need be said that the system is not in operation by reason of any malicious public intention. On the part of lessees there is a most unadmirable spirit of enterprise. On the part of state officials there is a very natural eagerness to report themselves as putting money into the treasury, and a low estimate of public sentiment and intelligence. In the people at large there is little more than a listless oblivion, that may be reprehensible, but is not intentional, unless they are to be judged by the acts of their elected legislators, a rule by which few communities would stand unaccused. At any rate, to fall into the error is easy. Outlays for the maintenance of police and courts are followed with a jealous eye. Expense and danger keep the public on the alert. Since neither police nor courts can pay back in money, they must pay back in protection and in justice. The accused of crime must be arrested, the innocent acquitted and exonerated, and the guilty sentenced to the penalties of the laws they have violated. But just here the careless mind slips into the mistake that the end is reached; that to punish crime is to deter crime; that when broken laws are *avenged* that is the end; that it is enough to have the culprit in limbo, if only he is made to suffer and not to cost. Hence the public resolve, expressed and enforced through legislators and executive officers, to spend no more money on the criminal than will promptly come back in cash — nay, worse, to make him pay in advance; and hence, too, a total disregard of all other results for good or bad that may be issuing from the prison walls. Thus it follows that that arm of the public service by whose workings a large part of all the immense labor and expenses of police and courts must become either profitable or unprofitable is handed over to the system which, whatever else of profound mischief its annual tables may betray or conceal, will show the smartest results on the cash-book. And thus we see, annually or biennially, the governors of some of our states congratulating their legislatures upon the fact that, by farming

out into private hands whose single motive is money, the most delicate and difficult task in the whole public service, that task is changed from an outlay that might have been made nobly advantageous into a shameful and disastrous source of revenue.

IN TENNESSEE — THE SYSTEM AT ITS BEST.

If, now, we are to begin a scrutiny of this evil, we shall do well to regard it first as it presents itself in its least offensive aspect. To do this, we turn to the state prison, or prisons, of Tennessee. The state holds in confinement about one thousand three hundred convicts. The penitentiary is at Nashville, the capital. On the 5th of December, 1881, its work shops were accidentally destroyed by fire, and those which have taken their place are, if we may accept the warden's judgment, the finest south of the Ohio river.* An advertisement from the Secretary of State, in a New Orleans paper of June 14, 1883, invites bids for a six years' lease of the "Penitentiary of Tennessee and the labor of the convicts, together with the building, quarry-grounds, fixtures, machinery, tools, engines, patterns, etc., belonging to the State." It is there asserted that the penitentiary has been conducted on this plan already for a number of years. The State's official prison inspectors remark, in their report of December 30, 1882: "The Lease System, during our term of office, has worked harmoniously and without the least scandal or cause for interference on the part of the inspectors. Rentals have been promptly paid, and the prisoners worked in accordance with law and most humanely treated. * * * To our minds there can be no valid objection raised to the Lease System, under proper restrictions, especially if as well conducted as for the past few years." They add the one reason for this conviction, but for which, certainly, there would be none: "A fixed revenue is assured to the state every year under the lease plan, as against an annual outlay under State management." The advertisement shows one feature in the system in Tennessee which marks it as superior to its application in most other States that practice it: the lessees employ such convicts as are retained "in the prison building at Nashville (many of whom are skilled laborers and of long-term sentence) in manufacturing wagons, iron hollow-ware, furniture, etc." The

* Unfortunately for this pardonable boast, the boundary given cuts off all State prisons that exclude the lease management, except one small institution in West Virginia.

terms of the lease are required to be "not less than one hundred thousand dollars per annum, payable quarterly, clear of all expenses to the state on any account except the salaries of the superintendent, warden, assistant warden, surgeon and chaplain, which are to be paid by the State."

Here, then, is the Lease System at its best. Let us now glance in upon it for a moment through its own testimony, as found in the official report of its operations during the two years ending December 1, 1882. At the close of that term the State held in custody 1,336 convicts. Of these 685 were at work in the penitentiary, 28 were employed in a railway tunnel, 34 were at work on a farm, 89 on another farm, 30 in a coal mine, 145 in another coal mine, and 325 in still another. In short, nearly half the convicts were scattered about in "branch prisons," and the facts that can be gathered concerning them are only such as are given or implied in the most meager allusions. It appears that they are worked in gangs, surrounded by armed guards, and the largest company, at least — the three hundred and twenty-five — quartered in a mere stockade. As the eye runs down the table of deaths, it finds opposite the names, among other mortal causes, the following: Found dead. Killed. Drowned. Not given. Blank. Blank. Blank. Killed. Blank. Shot. Killed. Blank. Blank. Killed. Killed. Blank. Blank. Blank. Killed. Blank. Blank.* The warden of the penitentiary states that, "in sending convicts to the branch prisons, especial care is taken to prevent the sending of any but able-bodied men;" and that "it has also been the custom to return the invalid and afflicted convicts from the branch prisons to this prison" — the penitentiary. Yet the report shows heavy rates of mortality at these branch prisons, resulting largely from such lingering complaints as dropsy, scrofula, etc., and more numerously by consumption than by any one thing else except violence; rates of mortality startlingly large compared with the usual rates of well-ordered prisons, and low only in comparison with those of other prisons worked under the hands of lessees.

The annual reports (taken as they could be procured, one for 1880, three for 1881, and one for 1882), of five of

*One might hope these blanks were but omissions of ditto marks, although such marks are not lacking where required in other parts of the table; but the charitable assumption fails when it would require us to supply them under "Sunstroke" and opposite the date of December.

the largest prisons in the United States, show that, from the aggregate population of those prisons, numbering 5,300 convicts, there escaped during twelve months but one prisoner. In all the state prisons of the country not kept by the Lease System, with a population, at dates of reports, of 18,400, there escaped in one year only 63. But in the one year ending December 1, 1881, there escaped, from an average population of about 630 convicts at these Tennessee "branch prisons," 49 prisoners. Or, rather, there were 49 escapes; for some convicts escaped and were recaptured more than once or twice. The following year they numbered 50. If the tables in the report were correct—it will be shown they are not—we should know that the recaptures in the *two* years were about forty; but that which is not known is, what public and private expense in depredations on the one hand and the maintenance of police on the other, these ninety-nine escaped robbers, burglars, house-burners, horse-thieves, and swindlers, and these forty recaptures, have caused and are still causing. The superintendent of prisons, making exception, it is true, of one small establishment of less than a hundred population, whence over a third of these escapes were made, says the deputy wardens in charge "deserve credit for the manner in which they have carried out his instructions." Such is one feature of the Lease System under an exceptionally good administration of it. What a condition it had but lately come out of may be inferred from three lines found in the warden's report of the Texas penitentiary in 1880: "I noticed in a recent Tennessee report that, from an average force of less than 600 convicts, there were 257 escapes in two years."

The convict quarters in the main prison at Nashville, are three separate stone wings, in each of which the cells rise one above another in four tiers. The total number of cells is 352. They are of three sizes. According to modern sanitary knowledge, a sleeping room should never contain less than 800 cubic feet of air to each occupant; but, of these cells, 120 contain each only 309 cubic feet of space; another 120 contain, each, but 175 feet; the remaining 112 contain but 162 feet each; and nearly every one of these cells has two inmates. Thus a majority of the inmates are allowed an air space at night less than the cubic contents of a good sized grave. The physician of the penitentiary reports that the air breathed in these cells is "almost insupportable." He says of the entire establishment, "No amount of remodeling or tinkering can make it comfortable or healthy."

The hospital he and others report as badly constructed and too small. "There is no place for dressing the dead except in the presence of all the sick in the hospital, or in the wing in the presence of more than two hundred convicts." Other details are too revolting for popular reading.

The female department of the prison "overlooks the prison yard in plain view and hearing of the male convicts." "No woman," says the warden, "should be sentenced to the Tennessee penitentiary until the state makes better provision for their care." "Had I the pardoning power, I would reprieve every woman now in the penitentiary and those who may be sentenced, until the state can or will provide a place to keep them, in keeping with the age in which we live." The chaplain reports these women as having "abandoned all hope and given up to utter despair, their conversation obscene and filthy, and their conduct controlled by their unrestrained passions." He indicates that he has abandoned all spiritual and moral effort among them; but, it is to be regretted, does not state by what right he has done so.

The discipline of this main prison, as of the "branches" seems to be only such as provides for efficiency in labor and against insurrection and escape. The warden's report intimates that modes of punishment of refractory prisoners are left "to the discretion of wardens and inspectors." "When the labor is hired out," he says, "the lessee demands punishment that will not cause him to lose the labor of the man." Thus he lays his finger upon the fact that the very nature of the Lease System tends to banish all the most salutary forms of correction from the prison management. "Under the present laws and customs," says this warden, "The Tennessee penitentiary is a school of crime instead of being a reformatory institution. . . . There are now about fifty boys in the penitentiary under eighteen years of age. . . . Nine-tenths of them leave prison much worse than when they came. . . . They are thrown into the midst of hundreds of the worst criminals the State affords, sleeping in the same cell with them at night, and working at the same bench or machine in the day. . . . The young and the old, the comparatively good and the vilest and most depraved, are thrown promiscuously together." *

* The roll of the Mississippi penitentiary shows, December, 1881, in a total number one-third less, seventy boys to have been received into the prison under eighteen years of age, some of them being but twelve and thirteen, sentenced for life and terms in their probabilities equivalent to a life sentence.

Even that superficial discipline which obtains in the prison, addressed merely against physical insubordination, is loose, crude, and morally bad. The freedom of intercourse among the convicts is something preposterous. The State is actually put into the position of bringing together its murderers, thieves, house-breakers, highwaymen, and abandoned women, and making each acquainted with all the rest, to the number of about five hundred a year. In an intelligently conducted prison, each convict carries his food to his cell and eats it there alone; but in this one the warden recommends that a dining-room be fitted up for 1200 persons. Convicts are given duties connected with the prison management; they are "door-keepers," and "wing-tenders," and "roll-callers." In one year the number of escaped from within its walls, not counting those made during the fire, was more than half as great as the total of escapes for an equal length of time from the State prisons of all New England, with New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, where there were over 12,000 convicts. One *woman* escaped twice, and another one three times, both within the same ninety days.

The incapable simplicity of the prison's disciplinarians is pointedly shown again in a list of no less than 101 convicts recommended for executive clemency, some for having helped to put out the fire in December, 1881, some for holding mutineers in check on the same occasion, and some for running and telling on certain fellow-convicts who were preparing to escape in disguise. Reformatory discipline can hardly be imagined as reaching a lower degree of imbecility.

The chaplain's report is a bundle of crude generalities, marked by a serene ignorance of the badness of affairs, and by a total absence of any tabulated or other form of accurate or useful observation. Some spelling, some reading, regular Sabbath service, Sunday school — all is recounted in indefinite quantities, except the 33 admissions into the "prison church." No feature is lacking of that well-meant but melancholy farce which religious prison work always must be, when performed without regard to the unique conditions of life to which it is addressed. During the winter of 1881-'82, the chaplain preached sometimes to the convicts at Ensley's farm, where "they seemed to enjoy the services very much;" and this is all he has to say of the place where men were being "found dead," and "killed," and "drowned," and

"——"-ed. Nor was his silence a mistaken discreetness; for he writes:

"The objects sought by imprisoning offenders being the security of society and the punishment and reformation of the guilty, I am glad to say that these objects are certainly in a large measure being accomplished in many cases in the management of our State Prison."

Having thus claimed a proprietary share in this rotten institution, he wisely concludes with an expression of timid uncertainty as to how many of his "prison church" membership will finally reach "the haven of eternal repose."

But are these bad conditions necessarily chargeable to the Lease System? No, and yes. They have been dwelt upon to show with what a state of affairs the system will content itself, its inspectors, the State legislators, and the community at large. It has nothing in it to produce a knowledge of and desire for a correct and honorable and truly profitable prison management. Its interests make directly against both individual and institutional reform. The plea of self-support on which it rests, the price it pays for its privileges, whether corruptly intended or not, are a bribe to officials and to public alike to close the ear against all suggestion of better things. For example, see the report of the two inspectors of the Tennessee prisons. Excepting a letter from another hand, quoted by them, their whole biennial report is less than one hundred lines. A little over half tells of the fire and the new workshops. A little less than half is given to the praise of the Lease System, upon the lonely merit of cash returns, and to a recommendation for its continuance. For the rest, they content themselves with pointing the Legislature to the reports of the superintendent, warden, physician, and chaplain of the penitentiary, whom, they say, "we indorse most heartily as attentive to their respective duties, and alive to every requirement of the law [which the warden reports as painfully barren of requirements] and the dictates of humanity in the discharge of their duty." However true this may be of the executive officers, it is certainly not true of the inspectors themselves. They do not certify to the correctness of a single roll or tabulated statement, or imply that they have examined any one of them. They do not present a statistical figure of their own, or recommend the taking of a single record among all the valuable registries that should be made, but are not, because the facts they would indicate are either absent or despised. Indeed, their silence is in a certain sense obligatory; for the

omitted records, if taken, would condemn the system they praise, and the meager records that are given swarm with errors. It would have been hard for the inspectors to say anything worse for themselves than that they had examined the reports. The physician's is an almost unqualified denunciation of the whole establishment; the superintendent's is three-quarters of a page of generalities and official compliments; and the warden's tabulated statements confusedly contradict each other. Even the numerical counts are incorrect. One convict, distinctly named and described, appears in the list of escapes but once, and among the recaptures three times. One, reported escaped twice, is not once mentioned among the recaptures. Four convicts (one of them serving a nineteen years' sentence) reported among the recaptures are not on the prison roll, nor are they reported as pardoned, discharged, transferred, died, blanked, or in any other way disposed of. A convict, Zach. Boyd by name, under life sentence, expected soon to die of dropsy and recommended by the warden for executive clemency, is enrolled neither among the dead nor the living. The inference is irresistible that the prison's officers do not know how many convicts they have or should have. In the list of "Commutations," names occur repeatedly that are not in any list of inmates on hand or removed or released. Several convicts are reported as white men when they escaped and as colored when recaptured, and one or two pass through two such transformations. All search by the present writer for occasion to lay these errors upon the printer has proved unavailing. The fault is in the prisons themselves and the system on which they are managed. Such a condition of accounts might be excused in the rosters of a retreating army; but it is not to be believed, while there is room for doubt, that the people of an American State will knowingly accept such stupid and wicked trifling with their State's good name and the safety of society, or even such a ghastly burlesque of net revenue.

IN NORTH CAROLINA.

Yet when we pass across the boundaries of Tennessee and enter an adjoining state, excepting only Missouri, we find the same system in operation, operating viciously, and often more viciously than in Tennessee. North Carolina, during the two years ending October 31, 1880, held in custody an average of 1090 convicts. The penitentiary proper and its interior industries were being controlled under public account. Shoemaking, brick-

making, tailoring, blacksmithing, etc., the officers report, were either already profitable or could be made so, and their detailed accounts of receipts and expenditures seem to verify their assertions. The statistics of the prison are given, not minutely or very comprehensively, but intelligently as far as they go, and are valuable.

So much sunshine of right endeavor an unusually restrained Lease System lets in; the Lease System itself exists only without the walls. Only able-bodied convicts may be farmed out. But just at this point the notion bred from a total misconception of the true profits to be sought — the notion that a penal establishment must live upon its income — begins to show its fruit. "Every enterprise that the board of directors," says its president, "have been able to devise for using the labor that was compelled to remain in the prison has been either summarily crushed in its incipiency or seriously crippled in its progress by the fact that we had not the means to carry them to a successful issue. Attempted economy, we believe, has proven a waste, and . . .. the State has suffered by a niggardly use of its resources. The [permanent] buildings, too, have been carried too far to be now torn down, and less costly ones erected in their stead. They must, therefore, at some time, be completed; and so long as they are permitted to remain in their present unfinished condition, they are subject to damage, from exposure to weather, that will often necessitate work to be redone that would have been saved had they been steadily pressed to completion. There would, too, be incalculable economy in the police of the prison, if the convenient and compact building in progress of erection could speedily take the place of the scattered and imperfect wooden structures now in use; and the suffering endured by the convicts in extreme cold weather, which is no part of their sentence, but has been unavoidable under the circumstances, would cease to be a source of anxiety to the board of directors and a reflection upon the power whose duty it is to relieve it."

The warden reports these temporary buildings as devoid of all means for warming them, badly ventilated, and entirely unfitted for use. A part, at least, of the inmates were, it seems, congregated in a stockade, which was "liable to tumble at any time." The prison physician pronounced these temporary quarters "the fruitful cause of many deaths." The population *within* this penitentiary was generally about three hundred. About eight hundred, therefore, were scattered about in compa-

nies under lessees, and in the two years, 1879–80, were at different times at work on six different railways and one wagon road. What their experiences were at these places can be gathered, by one at a distance, only from one or two incidental remarks dropped by the prison officers in their reports and from the tabulated records of the convict movement. There is no hospital record given concerning them, nor any physician's account of their sickness. When they drop off they are simply scored as dead. The warden says of them that many had "taken their regular shifts for several years in the Swannanoa and other tunnels on the Western North Carolina Railroad, and were finally returned to the prison with shattered constitutions and their physical strength entirely gone, so that, with the most skillful medical treatment and the best nursing, it was impossible for them to recuperate."

But such remarks convey but a faint idea of the dreadful lot of these unfortunate creatures. The prison physician, apologizing for the high death-rate within the walls, instances twenty-one deaths of men "who had been returned from the railroads completely broken down and hopelessly diseased." And when *these deaths are left out* of the count, the number of deaths *inside* the walls, not attributable to *outside* hardships, amounted, in 1880, to just the number of those in the prisons of Auburn and Sing-Sing in a population *eight times as large*. Ten-elevenths of the deaths for 1879 and 1880 were from lingering diseases, principally consumption. Yet, year in and year out, the good citizens of Raleigh were visiting the place weekly, teaching Sunday-school, preaching the gospel, and staring these facts in the face.

Now, what was the death-rate among the convicts working at railroad construction? The average number of prisoners so engaged in 1879 and 1880 was 776. The deaths, including the 21 sent back to die in prison, were 178, an annual death-rate of nearly eleven and a half per cent., and therefore greater than the year's death-rate in New Orleans in 1853, the year of the Great Epidemic. But the dark fact that eclipses everything else is that not a word is given to account for the deaths of 158 of these men, except that 11 were shot down in trying to escape from this heartless butchery.

In the light of these conditions, the warden's expressed pleasure in the gradual decrease in prison population since 1877 in North Carolina seems rather ill grounded and not likely to last. It is certainly amazing that men of the sincerest good intentions can live in full knowl-

edge of such affairs, or, at least, within easy reach of the knowledge, and not put forth their protest against the system that fosters and perpetuates it. The North Carolina prison, it may be repeated, is managed, within its walls, on the public account; but it is the Public Account System suffocated under the Lease System and stabbed by the glittering policy of self-support. In 1880 alone the *Lease System, pure and simple*, set free upon the people of North Carolina, from its railroad gangs, 123 escaped criminals. The prison added 12 more. The recaptures numbered 42. Ninety-three remained at large; just 5 more than the *total* escapes for an equal period in every State prison of every State in this country, excepting the other eleven managed in whole or part upon the Lease System. The moral effect of such a prison life on men herded in stockades may be left to the imagination; but one other fact must be noted. In the two years 1879–80 there were turned into this penitentiary at Raleigh 234 youths under twenty years of age, not one of whom was under sentence for less than twelve months.

It only remains to be asked, For what enormous money consideration did the State set its seal upon this hideous mistake? The statement would be incredible were it attempted to give other than a literal quotation. "Therefore it will be seen," says the warden at the bottom of his résumé of accounts, "that the convicts have earned $678.78 more than the prison department has cost for the two years ending October 31, 1880."

IN KENTUCKY.

In Kentucky the management of the State prison seems to be in a stage of transition. Facts that need no mention here * make allusion to it a particularly delicate task. Yet the writer may not assume that any one would desire that the truth be left unsaid. Upon the candor and generosity not only of Kentuckians, but of all the communities whose prisons come under this review, must the writer throw himself, trusting to find his words received in the same spirit of simple good citizenship in which they are offered.

After long experience with the Lease System, there was passed in May, 1880, an "Act to provide for the government, management, and discipline of the Kentucky penitentiary," by which the prison passed back from other hands into those of the State's appointed officers.

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* At Louisville, Kentucky, where the convention before which this paper was read was then enjoying the hospitality of the State

The Lease System was not discarded; but certain very decided modifications were made in it, leaning toward the Contract System. The report made by the prison officers and board, eighteen months later, bears a general air of the sad confusion that commonly belongs to a late and partial extrication from disaster. It affords a retrospective view of the old system extremely unflattering; but it also gives evidence that certain State officers, conspicuously the Governor, were making an earnest and sagacious effort to reform the entire penal system of their commonwealth. Yet it seems plain again that they are not a little handicapped by that false popular idea of the prison's place in the State's governmental economy, upon which the Lease System thrives while the convict falls into moral and physical ruin and society's real interests are sold for old rags. It may be assumed that there is a reserved determination on the part of those who have taken the matter in hand, to raise the work of reform to the plane it should occupy as soon as the general sentiment can be brought to require it; but, meantime, the State's penal system has risen, from something worse, only to the level of the system in North Carolina.

The officers whom the State, pursuant to its scheme of renovation, placed in charge, put that scheme into practice, to use their own words, "whenever the costs of doing so involved only a small outlay." The building that contains the prisoners' cells, found "infested with all kinds of vermin known to institutions of the kind," with bad ventilation and rat-eaten floors, was purged, by convict labor, with coal-oil, fire, whitewash, and tar. The grounds around the women's quarters, "low and marshy, covered with water, in rainy weather, ankle-deep for days," were filled up. "Long rows of shanties or sheds, . . . unsightly and inflammable in the extreme," long used in the hackling of hemp, were torn away. The hospital and chapel were cleaned and kept clean. Religious services were regularly afforded by an official chaplain and at intervals by a Catholic priest, and Sabbath instruction gradually took shape with (let it be said to their praise) members of the Governor's own family in charge. The diminutive and dilapidated library was put into shape and new books were added. But from here on, the friends of the prison could only pray for aid and relief. The principal industry continued to be, as it had been for many years, working in hemp, under circumstances that made it a distressing and unhealthful hardship. On the 1st of last January, 350 men were working

in that department without ventilation or bath, and, says the warden, "the dust so dense that it is frequently impossible to recognize a man twenty feet distant." "It is certainly an act only of common humanity that the evil created should be counteracted by good and ample bathing facilities." In the hospital, as a fit adjunct to the hemp department, there were, in 1881, 144 cases of inflamed eyes and 202 of acute bronchitis. The kitchen was not adapted to the proper cooking of the prisoners' food, and the hospital's response was 616 cases of acute disease of the bowels and 101 of impoverishment of the blood. There was an entire absence of an intelligent *trained* reformatory treatment, in accordance with a knowledge of criminal character, recognition of the criminals' unforfeited rights, and proper prison discipline. In this shape stood matters at the beginning of the year 1882, as viewed from without. The inside history can only be conjectured; but we get one glimpse of the convict's sentiment toward his choking, blinding, life-shortening daily task in the fact that, within the eighteen months of the new règime, five men purposely mutilated their hands so as to compel the amputation of fingers, and two others cut off, each, a hand at the wrist. What the fortunes of the convicts leased out upon railroad construction were and are, we are given no clew by which to tell; the report contains no returns from them, and we have only the same general assurance that all is well that is given as to those in Tennessee and North Carolina.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Another view of the Lease System under limitations is afforded in the "Annual Report of the Board of Directors of the South Carolina Penitentiary for the fiscal year ending October 31, 1881." The prison is not only under a full corps of State officers, but, like the North Carolina prison, it is conducted on public account, the convicts only being leased, and of these only such as are sent beyond the prison's walls. Yet the overwhelming consideration of self-support makes the spirit of the Lease System dominant over all. The reformatory features are crude, feeble, and purely accidental. The records are meager. The discipline is of that poor sort which is vaguely reported as "administered only when necessary," addressed simply to the prisoner's safe custody and the performance of his tasks. The escapes, from an average population of 632, were 36; the recaptures 21. Most likely to the popular eye, the numbers are not startling; but, if we look around to

compare them with the record of some properly ordered prison of the same population, we see the warden of the Maryland penitentiary, under contract management, admitting with full explanation and apology the escape of one prisoner, the first in ten years. The number of escapes reported from the South Carolina prison would have been forty, had not four escaped convicts been "found drowned" within two or three days after their escape. A report with which such numbers will compare favorably can be found only by turning to other leased prison forces. One reason why it may there be found is that, in South Carolina, almost alone, a penalty attaches to the lessees for each escape. "There is now due the State," says the report, "in penalties for the escape of convicts under contract [meaning leased convicts] about $25,000." In the chaplain's report, as in all chaplains' reports under the Lease System, and probably in many under better systems, is seen the familiar conjunction of pious intention with a strange oversight of the inadaptability, to the incarcerated criminal, of the ordinary technical methods of religion in society. What response can there be but a weary smile to the complacent announcement that in this prison "there are now about one hundred men and women who can repeat the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, the Apostles' Creed, and the whole of Capers' Catechism." But the humor fades out when it is added, "We have also a Sunday-school, regularly conducted by *intelligent convicts*." "I regard the State Penitentiary, as designed by its originators, as a great reformatory school, and I am happy to believe, from personal observation, ... that this prime leading object is . . . being faithfully carried out." So writes this evidently sincere and zealous divine, in the face of the fact that the very foundation principles of reformatory treatment were absent, and that constantly a larger number of convicts were kept beyond his reach than were left for him to preach to.

One of the peculiar temptations which the Lease System holds out to the communities employing it, as such communities are represented in the jury-box, needs a moment's careful notice. The States where this system is in vogue are now, and have been for some years, enjoying a new and great devolopment of their natural resources and of other industries than that colossal agricultural system that once monopolized their attention. There is, therefore, a vigorous demand for the opening and completion of extensive public works,— mines, railways, turnpikes, levees, and the like,— and for ways and

means for getting them done as quickly and cheaply as possible. Now, it is with these potent conditions in force that the Lease System presents itself as the lowest bidder, and holds forth the seductive spectacle of these great works, which everybody wants and no one wants to pay for, growing apace by convict labor that seems to cost nothing. What is the consequence? We might almost assert beforehand that the popular sentiment and verdict would hustle the misbehaving, with shocking alacrity, into the State's prison under extravagant sentences or for trivial offenses, and sell their labor to the highest bidder who will use them in the construction of public works. The temptation gathers additional force through the popular ignorance of the condition and results of these penitentiaries, and the natural assumption that they are not so grossly mismanaged but that the convict will survive his sentence, and the fierce discipline of the convict camp "teach him to behave himself."

But there is no need to reason from cause to effect only. The testimony of the prisons themselves is before us, either to upset or else to establish these conjectures. A single glance at almost any of their reports startles the eye with the undue length of sentences and the infliction of penalties for mere misdemeanors that are proper only to crimes and felonies. In the Georgia penitentiary, in 1880, in a total of nearly 1200 convicts, only 22 prisoner were serving as low a term as one year, only 52 others as low a term as two years, only 76 others as low a term as three years; while those who were under sentences of ten years and *over*, numbered 538, although ten years, as the rolls show, is the *utmost* length of time that a convict can be expected to remain alive in a Georgia penitentiary. Six men were under sentence for simple assault and battery,— mere fisticuffing,— one of two years, two of five years, one of six years, one of seven, and one of eight. For larceny, three men were serving under sentence of twenty years; five were sentenced each fifteen years; one, fourteen years; six, twelve years; thirty-five, ten years; and one hundred and seventy-two from one year up to nine years. In other words, a large majority of all these had, for simple stealing, without breaking in or violence, been virtually condemned to be worked and misused to death. One man was under a twenty years' sentence for "hog-stealing." Twelve men were sentenced to the South Carolina penitentiary, in 1881, on no other finding but a misdemeanor commonly atoned for by a fine of a few dollars, and which thousands

of the State's inhabitants are constantly committing with impunity — the carrying of concealed weapons. Fifteen others were sentenced for mere assault and assault and battery. It is to be inferred — for we are left to our inferences — that such sentences were very short; but it is inferable, too, that they worked the customary loss of citizenship for life. In Louisiana, a few days before the writing of this paper, a man was sentenced to the penitentiary for twelve months for stealing five dollars' worth of gunny-sacks.

IN GEORGIA.

The convict force of Georgia, already more than once alluded to, presents the Lease System under some other peculiarly vicious aspects. For example, the State is bound by, and is now in the fourth year of, a twenty years' lease. The convicts, on October 20, 1880, were 1185 or 1186 in number (the various exhibits of the biennial report differ widely in some of their statements). They were consigned to three penitentiaries in three different counties, each of which had "several branch camps." Thus they were scattered about in eleven camps over at least seven counties. The assurance of the "principal keeper" is that in all these camps they are humanely treated. Every "permanent camp" has a hospital, a physician, and a chaplain. But there are other camps that have none. Reports from other officials and from special committees of citizens repeat the principal keeper's assurance in the same general terms. And yet all these utterances unconsciously admit facts that betray the total unfitness of the management for the ends it ought to have in view and its gross inhumanity. From the "General Notice to Lessees" the following is taken, with no liberties except to italicize:

"In all cases of *severe illness* the *shackles* must be promply removed." "The convicts shall be turned off of *the chain* on the Sabbath and allowed to recreate in and about the stockade." Elsewhere the principal keeper says, "When a convict is sick, the chains are to be taken off of him." As to the discipline he reports 35 escapes (7 burglars, 3 house-burners, 9 murderers and would-be murderers, 1 forger, 3 robbers, 7 thieves, and others whose crimes are best unmentioned), with no recaptures; and the surgeon reports nine men killed, three of them by fellow convicts. "You will observe the death rate to have greatly decreased in the last two years," says the principal keeper; but the death rate, when ob-

served, was found to have decreased only to about twice the rate of properly planned and managed establishments of the kind. This, he reports is one-half what it had been. His tabulated statements relating to the convicts, though lamentably scanty, reveal an amount of confusion behind them that is hard to credit. One table, purporting to show the whole 1186 convicts in confinement, classified by the crimes under which they were sentenced, has not a single correct number in it, and is an entire hundred short in its true total. The numbers, moreover, are so far out of the way that they cannot possibly be the true exhibit of some other date substituted in error. They report 184 under sentence for burglary, whereas the roll shows 467, and they entirely omit 25 serving sentence for forgery, and 23 for robbery.

THE PARDONING POWER.

We have already noticed, in the prison and convict camps of this State, the feature of cruel sentences. Let us look at another; to wit, lavish pardons. It is but typical of the prisons under the Lease System, wherever that is found in unrestrained operation. Here may be seen a group of penal institutions, the worst in the country by every evidence of their own setting forth: cruel, brutalizing, deadly; chaining, flogging, shooting, drowning, killing by exhaustion and exposure, holding the criminal out to the public gaze, publishing him to the world by name and description in its reports when he goes in, every alternate year while he stays in, and when he dies or goes out; putting under foot every method of reform worthy of prison science, mocking such intelligent sense of justice and mercy as we may have, and doing everything that can be done to make his heart and conscience harder than the granite of his prison walls. Yet these prisons are sending forth from their gates a larger percentage of their populations pardoned, than issues in like manner from all the prisons of the country managed on intelligent reformatory systems. Nor can the fault be confidently imputed, as is often hastily done, to political design or mere pliability in State governors. The horrors of the convict camps, best known to the executive, the absence of a discipline calculated to show who is worthy of clemency, the activity of outside friends usurping this delicate office, are potent causes; and the best extenuation that can be offered is that a large proportion of these pardons are granted not because the prisoner has become so good, but because the prison is so bad.

IN TEXAS.

This is conspicuously the case in Texas. In the two years ending October 31, 1880, the Governor pardoned one hundred State convicts from the Huntsville (Texas) penitentiary. Over one-fourth were *children from ten to sixteen years of age*, and nearly another fourth, says the superintendent; "were hopelessly diseased, blind, crippled or demented, . . . simple objects of pity, the sight of whom would have excited commiseration in hearts of stone."

For some years past Texas has had in custody about two thousand convicts at once. They are under the Lease System, some of whose features, at least, give dissatisfaction to the State's prison directors and to its Legislature. The working of convicts remote from the prison, though practiced, is condemned, and the effort is being made to bring the management into conformity with a statute that requires as many of the convicts as can be to be employed within the penitentiary walls. Two different reports of the directors, covering a period of four years, impress their reader as the utterances of men of the best disposition, sincerely desiring to promote humanity and the public good, but handicapped, if not themselves in some degree misled, by the error of making self-support the foremost consideration in all their estimates of prison methods. "To provide for their employment so that they will cease to be *a burden upon the tax-payers of the country*," would be counted a strange proposition to apply to courts, schools or police, yet is assumed by them, as a matter of course, to be applicable to prison populations, and so becomes the barrier from which they recoil, and which they have allowed to throw them back into the mire of the lease system. "This problem," they say, "has long engaged the attention of philanthropists and statesmen." But they mistake. The real problem that has engaged such is, how to procure the most honorable and valuable results, and to pay for them whatever is necessary and no more. It was, unfortunately, under the shadow of these mistakes that the Texas board went so far as to "consider very seriously as to whether it should not adopt the Public Account or the Contract System," only to reject the one and to fail to get bids on the other. As a result, the State stands to-day bound, for fourteen years to come, by the Lease System, the worst prison system in Christendom, a system that cannot be reconciled with the public honor, dignity or welfare. The board intimates plainly

that the Lease System is not its choice, or at least would not be but for the nightmare of self-support. As it is, they strive to make the best of a bad matter. How bad it has been and is, a few facts will show.

It is said of the Huntsville penitentiary, Texas (an additional one has just been built at Rusk), that it was built "on the old plan, looking altogether to security, and without any regard to proper ventilation or the health or comfort of the inmates, . . . the cell buildings . . . to a considerable extent cut off from light and air, and in constant danger of destruction from fire." The prison board erected a new cell building to take its place, in which each cell has a cubic content of 384 feet, and, says the board, "can comfortably accommodate two men." This gives each occupant an air space one-quarter of the minimum necessary to health. Yet this was a great improvement. It may be mentioned in passing, as an incident very common under the Lease System, that about the same time, a lot of machinery, the property of the State, valued on the inventory of one lessee after another at $11,600, was sold for $681, and the proceeds laid out in fifty-one breech-loading, double-barreled shot-guns. The following is from the superintendent's biennial report of October 31, 1880: "The most usual mode of punishment practiced at outside camps is by stocks. . . . Most of the sergeants, in order to make it effective, have lifted the convicts on the ball of the foot, or tiptoe, . . . jeopardizing not only health, but life. The [present] lessees . . . abolished the use of stocks at their wood camps, and I rejoice that you [the directors] have determined to abolish them altogether. On many of the farms the sergeants have been in the habit of . . . whipping, as well as permitting their guards to do so, without first obtaining an order from the board of directors, as required by law." Of illegal punishments he says: "We have been compelled to discharge sergeants and a great number of guards on account of it. . . . I am satisfied that many escapes have been caused by illegal punishments and by cursing and threats." The spirit of this officer's report does him honor throughout.

One can turn again only to leased prisons elsewhere, to find numbers with which to compare the ghastly mortality of some of these Texas convict camps. Men in large numbers, "who have contracted in the miserable jails of the State incurable diseases, or whose systems have been impregnated with diseases from having led

lives of debauchery and dissipation, are put to the hardest manual labor and . . . soon break down in health." "Sick convicts are crowded into the same building containing well convicts, and cannot have proper nursing and quiet, even if they have good medical attention." Frequently sergeants, believing that convicts are trying to play off, have kept them at work when, in fact, they were seriously ill, . . . or have tried to physic them themselves." On railroad construction the average *annual* rate of mortality, for 1879 and 1880, was 47 to the thousand, three times the usual death-rate of properly managed American prisons; at plantation labor it was 49; at the iron-works it was 54; and at the wood-cutting camps more than half the entire average population died within the two years. So much as to the rate. The total *number* of deaths in the period was 256, of which only 60 occurred in the prison hospital, the rest in the camps. Nor was any considerable fraction of them by contagious diseases. They were from congestions of the brain, the stomach and the bowels; from scurvy, dropsy, nervous fever, malaria, chronic diarrhœa, general debility, pneumonia. Thirty-five died of gunshot wounds, five of "*wounds miscellaneous.*" Of three, the cause of death was "not stated." Three were drowned, four were sunstruck, two committed suicide, and two were killed by the explosion of a boiler. And all was reported without a word of apology or explanation. The whole thirty-five who were shot to death were shot in attempting to escape "from forces at work outside the prison walls." "In nearly all these cases a coroner's jury has stated that the guard acted in discharge of his duty." As to the remainder, we know not what the verdicts were; or whether there were any; nor do we know how many vain attempts were made to escape; but we know that, over and above the deaths, there were treated in the prison hospital — where so few of the outside sick ever arrived — fifteen others with gunshot wounds and fifty-two with "wounds miscellaneous."

We know, too, by the record, that four men did escape from within the prison walls, and three hundred and sixty-two from the gangs outside. In the interest of the Texas taxpayer, from whom the Lease System is supposed to lift an intolerable burden, as well as for society at large, it would be well to know what were the favorite crimes of these three hundred and sixty-six escaped felons (since unreformed criminals generally repeat the same crimes again and again), what moral and material mischief one hundred and twenty-three of them did be-

fore they were recaptured, and what the record will be of the two hundred and forty-three remaining at large when the terms they should have served have expired. These facts are not given. We get only, as it were, a faint whiff of the mischief in the item of $6,900 expended in apprehending one hundred of them.

And yet, this is the operation of the Lease System under a Governor who was giving the State prison and its inmates a far more rational, humane and diligent attention than is generally accorded them by State executives, albeit such officers are not as negligent in this direction as they are generally supposed to be; under a warden, too, who, if we read rightly between the lines of his report, is a faithful and wise overseer; and even under lessees whom this warden commends as "kind and humane gentlemen." We have both the warden's and directors' word for it, that this discipline and sanitary treatment of the convicts was "a very decided improvement" on what it had been. The question remains, What may the system do where it is a State's misfortune to have a pre-occupied Governor and unscrupulous prison lessees? It is a positive comfort to know that for two years more, at least, the same officials and lessees remained in charge, that a second prison was added to the old one and a third projected, and that the total mortality was reduced by the abolition of the wood-cutting camps.

But it is far otherwise to know by the report for 1881–82 that the Lease System continues; that the death-rate is still enormous, and has increased in the prison and in most of the camps; that the number of men committed to hospital with gunshot and "miscellaneous" wounds was fifty-two; that in the mortality lists are three suicides, six sunstrokes, and thirty-six victims of the breech-loading double-barreled shot-guns; that there passed through hospital fifty-one cases of scurvy; and that there were *three hundred and ninety-seven escapes* and but seventy-four recaptures.

It may be enough attention has already been given to chaplains' reports in these so-called penitentiaries, but the one for the Texas prison compels at least a glance. It makes sixteen lines of letter-press. White men's prayer-meeting on Sunday at one hour, colored men's at another, general Sunday-school at another, preaching at another. These services are believed to have been fruitful of good; it is hoped "that some will leave the prison reformed men"; but there is not the record of one positive result, or a single observation reg-

istered loooking to the discovery of a result, either intellectual, moral or religious, concerning hundreds of men whose even partial reformation would be worth to the state — if it must be reduced to money value — tens of thousands of dollars. Two lines of the report are certainly unique: "We endeavor to enlist all the men in this service [the Sunday-school] we can, and try to suppress all differences of opinion which are calculated to engender strife."

A single ten thousand dollars is the States' annual share in what are called the profits of this system of convict control. Were the convicts managed under the Public Account System at an annual loss of a like amount (which need not be), making a difference of twenty thousand dollars, and were the burden lifted from the mass of the one million six hundred thousand inhabitants of Texas and thrown entirely on the shoulders of one hundred thousand tax-payers, it would be just one dime per year to each shoulder. But it would save the depredations of nearly two hundred escaped convicts per year, whatever they might be; such reprisals as about four hundred others, annually liberated and turned loose upon society, may undertake as an offset for the foul treatment they have undergone in the name of justice, and the attendant increase in the expenses of police; and the expenses of new trials and convictions for the same old crimes committed over again by many who might have been in whole or in some degree reformed, but instead were only made worse. And two things more it would save — the honor of the state and the integrity of the laws and of the courts. For one thing, however, the people of the state of Texas are to be congratulated: that they have public servants ready — let the people but give the word — to abjure the Lease System with all its horrid shams and humiliating outrages, and establish in its place a system of management that shall be first honorable and morally profitable, and then as inexpensive as may be.

IN ALABAMA.

Something like the same feeling was displayed by the Governor and some others in the State of Alabama, in 1882. In the matter of its penitentiary and convict camps, it is not necessary to weary the eye again with figures. Between the dates of the last two biennial reports (1880 and 1882), a change of administration took place in the prison management, affording by a comparison of the two reports, a revelation that should have re-

sulted in the instant abolition of the Lease plan at any cost. Under the date of October, 1880, the penitentiary inspectors reported to the Governor that the contractors (lessees), had "provided strong prisons for the safe-keeping and comfort of the convicts;" that these prisons had "generally been neatly kept," and that they themselves had "required much attention to be given to the sanitary regulation of them." They admitted the fact of considerable sickness at one or two places, but stated that two of the inspectors had visited the convicts employed there, and "found the sick in a comfortable hospital, with medical attendance, nurses, and everything needed for their comfort." They reported their diligent attention to all their official duties, and stated, as from their own knowledge, that during the two years then closing the convicts had "generally been well clothed and fed, and kindly and humanely treated; and that corporal punishment had only been inflicted in extreme cases." They closed with the following remarkable statement: "Notwithstanding our report shows a decrease of one hundred and fourteen convicts, . . . yet we think . . . the future of this institution is brighter than its past." There had been paid into the State treasury forty-eight thousand dollars, and the managers in general were elated. But a change in the prison's administration added a different chapter, and in 1882 a new warden wrote:

"I found the convicts confined at fourteen different prisons controlled by as many persons or companies, and situated at as many different places . . . They [the prisons] were as filthy, as a rule, as dirt could make them, and both prisons and prisoners were infested with vermin. . . . Convicts were excessively and, in some instances, cruelly punished. . . . They were poorly clothed and fed. . . . The sick were neglected, insomuch that no hospital had been provided, they being confined in the cells with the well convicts. . . . The prisons have no adequate water supply, and I verily believe there were men in them who had not washed their faces in twelve months. . . . I found the men so much intimidated that it was next to impossible to get from them anything touching their treatment. . . . Our system is a better training school for criminals than any of the dens of iniquity that exist in our large cities. . . . To say there are any reformatory measures used at our prisons, or that any regard is had to kindred subjects, is to state a falsehood. The system is a disgrace to the state, a reproach to the civilization and Christian sentiment of the age, and ought to be speedily abandoned."

Almost the only gleams of light in these dark pictures are these condemnations of the system by those whose

official duties require them to accommodate themselves to it, but whose humanity, whose reason, and whose perception of the public's true interests compel them to denounce it. This is again pointedly the case in Virginia. There the state prison has been for a long time managed on Public Account; but the management was only a mismanagement and a neglect; and when this came to be known, those in authority, instead of trying to correct the needless abuses of a good system, rejected the system itself and adopted the contract system. The report of the prison board for the year ending September 30, 1881, indicates that the change was made mainly, and probably only, on pecuniary considerations, and there seems to be reason to fear that this narrow view is carrying sentiment downward toward the Lease System itself. The board reports itself "pleased to discover for the first time, that the general agent has reached the conclusion that the 'best way to make it [the prison] self-sustaining would be to lease the convict labor.'" At the date of this report the mischievous doctrine had already made its way through the legislature, and into convict management; and the prison becoming overcrowded, a large company of prisoners were leased to certain railroad companies, beyond the control of the penitentiary superintendent. A glance at the surgeon's report shows one of the results of this movement. In the population within the prison, averaging about 600, the death rate was 1½ per cent.; while among the 260 convicts on the Richmond & Alleghany Railroad it was nearly 8½ per cent., even after leaving out of the count certain accidental deaths that legitimately belong to the perils of the work and really should be included in the count. Including them, the rate would be 11 per cent. The superintendent does not withhold his condemnation: "The system of leasing," he says, "as is clearly shown by the statistics of the few governments, State and foreign, where it prevails, is barbarous in the extreme, and should be discountenanced. The dictates of humanity, if no other consideration prevailed, should be sufficient to silence any effort to establish this system of prison management in Virginia."

IN ARKANSAS, MISSISSIPPI AND LOUISIANA — THE SYSTEM AT ITS WORST.

Even where the system enjoys the greatest favor from the state governments whose responsibibities in

the matter it pretends to assume, it is rare that there is not some one who revolts and utters against it his all too little heeded denunciation. Such voices are not altogether unheard even in Arkansas, Mississippi and Louisiana, where undoubtedly the lessees are more slackly held to account, as they more completely usurp the State's relation to its convicts than elsewhere. It is here may be found a wheel within this wheel; to wit, the practice of sub-leasing. So complete in these regions is the abandonment, by the State, of all the duties it owes to its criminal system, that in two instances, Arkansas and Louisiana, it does not so much as print a report, and the present writer is indebted entirely to the courtesy of the governors of these two states for letters and manuscript tables imparting the information which enables him to write. "The State," says the clerk of the Louisiana penitentiary, "has no expense except keeping the building in repair." "The State," writes the Governor's secretary in Arkansas, "is at no expense whatever." In Mississippi, the terms of the present lease make no mention whatever of any moral, religious, or educational privilege or duty. "All convicts sentenced for a period of ten years or less, said lessees may work outside the penitentiary, but within the limits of the State of Mississippi, in building railroads, levees, or in *any private labor or employment.*" One of the effects of such a rule is that a convict condemned to thirty or forty years' service, being kept within the walls, has fully three chances to one of outliving the convict who is sentenced to eight or ten years' service, and who must, therefore, work outside. Yet it is not intended to imply that a long-term convict inside the prison is likely to serve out his sentence. While among the majority of commitments on shorter periods, men, women and children are frequently sentenced for terms of fifteen, twenty, thirty, forty, and sometimes even of fifty years, a prisoner can rarely be found to have survived ten years of this brutal slavery either in the prison or in the convict camp. In Alabama, in 1880, there were but three who had been in confinement eight years and one nine; while not one had lived out ten years' imprisonment. In Mississippi, December 1, 1881, among seventy-seven convicts then on the roll under ten years' sentence, seventeen under sentence of between ten and twenty, and twenty-three under sentences of between twenty and fifty years, none had served eleven years, only two had served ten, and only three

others had served nine years.* There were twenty-five distinct outside gangs, and their average annual rate of mortality for that and the previous year was over 8 per cent.

During the same term, 142 convicts escaped; which is to say that, for every four law-breakers put into the penitentiary, one got away; and against the whole number so escaping there were but twenty-five recaptures. The same proportion of commitments and escapes is true of the Arkansas prison for the year ending the 30th of last April. In Louisiana the proportion is smaller, but far from small. A surer escape in Louisiana was to die; and in 1881 14 per cent. perished. The means are wanting to show what part of this mortality belongs to the penitentiary at Baton Rogue and what to the camps outside; but if anything may be inferred from the moral results of the Lease System in other States, the year's death-rate of the convict camps of Louisiana must exceed that of any pestilence that ever fell upon Europe in the Middle Ages. And as far as popular rumor goes, it confirms this assumption on every hand. Every mention of these camps is followed by the execrations of a scandalized community, whose ear is every now and then shocked afresh with some new whisper of their frightful barbarities. It is not for the present writer to assert, that every other community where the leasing of convicts prevails is moved to indignation by the same sense of outrage and disgrace; yet it certainly would be but a charitable assumption to believe that the day is not remote when in every such region, the sentiment of the people will write, over the gates of the convict stockades and over the doors of the lessees' sumptuous homes, one word: Aceldama — the field of blood.

CONCLUSIONS.

There never was a worse falsification of accounts than that which persuades a community that the system of leasing out its convicts is profitable. Out of its own mouth — by the testimony of its own official reports — what have we not proved against it? We have shown:

1. That by the very ends for which it exists, it makes a proper management of prisons impossible, and lays the hand of arrest upon reformatory discipline.

* From the nature of the tabulated roll, the time served by those under life sentences could not be computed; but there is no reason to suppose it would materially change the result, were it known.

2. That it contents itself, the state and the public mind, with prisons that are in every way a disgrace to civilization.

3. That in practice it is brutally cruel.

4. That it hardens, debases and corrupts the criminal, committed to it by the law, in order that, if possible, he may be reformed and reclaimed to virtue and society.

5. That it fixes and enforces the suicidal and inhuman error, that the community must not be put to any expense for the reduction of crime or the reformation of criminals.

6. That it inflicts a different sentence upon every culprit that comes into its clutches from that which the law and the court has pronounced. So that there is not to-day a single penitentiary convict, from the Potomoc around to the Rio Grande, who is receiving the sentence really contemplated by the law under which he stands condemned.

7. That it kills like a pestilence, teaches the people to be cruel, sets up a false system of clemency, and seduces the state into the committal of murder for money.

8. That in two years it permitted eleven hundred prisoners to escape.

Which of these is its profitable feature? Will some one raise the plea of necessity? The necessity is exactly the reverse. It is absolutely necessary to society's interests and honor that what the lease in its very nature forbids should be sought; and that what it by nature seeks should be forbidden.

EXCUSES FOR THE SYSTEM.

There are two or three excuses often made for this system, even by those who look upon it with disfavor and protestations, and by some who are presumably familiar with the facts concerning convict management in other States and other countries. But these pleas are based upon singularly unfounded assumptions. One is that the States using the Lease System, in whole or in part, have not those large prison populations which are thought to be necessary to the successful operation of other systems. In point of fact, much the largest population belonging to any one prison in the United States, in 1880, was in Texas, under the Lease System. The fourth in numbers is that of Tennessee, also leased. That of Georgia, leased, is more than twice that of Maryland, managed on the Contract System. The smallest State prison population in the United States, that of Rhode Island, numbering at the close of last year only eighty-

one convicts, showed a loss that year, on the Contract System, of only eleven dollars. Missouri manages a convict population of the same size as that of Georgia, and boasts a cash profit on the Contract System. Indeed, the State prisons under the Lease System are, almost without exception, populous prisons, the average population among the whole twelve so governed being 920, while that of the thirty-three that exclude the system is but 560.

Another unfounded assumption is that the prisons working under the Contract or the Public Account System receive their inmates largely from the ranks of men skilled in trade. The truth is, the strongest argument in favor of teaching trades in prison lies in the fact that men with trades keep out of prison, or appear there only in decided minorities, in any community; and prisons everywhere receive especially but few acquainted with the two or three or five or six skilled industries that happen to be carried on within their walls. It is assumed, again, that the great majority of the inmates of our leased prisons are not only without mechanical training, but without mechanical aptitude. Yet, in fact, there is quite enough skilled work taught to just this class in just these prisons to make void the argument. Within the walls of the Virginia State penitentiary in September, 1881, under the Contract System, tobacco, shoes, barrels and clothing were being made with a force of which three-fifths were black men. The whole force of the Maryland prison is engaged, within its walls, under contractors, in marble cutting and the manufacture of shoes, stoves and hollow iron-ware, and in November, 1881, consisted of five blacks to exery three whites, and of the entire number not one in ten was previously acquainted with any handicraft that could be of any service to him in any of these occupations.

Moreover, on the other hand, there is no leased prison that does not constantly receive a sufficient number of skilled convicts, both white and black, to constitute a good teaching force for the training of the unskilled. The Texas penitentiary, in 1880, had on its rolls 39 workers in wood, 20 in leather, 50 in metals and machinery, 20 in stone and brick, 7 engravers and printers, and 11 painters.

The leased prisons, as it happens, have one decided advantage in this regard; the high average term of sentences affords an unusual opportunity for training the convicts to skilled labor, and making the best use, both pecuniary and reformatory, of their occupations. The

South Carolina penitentiary is probably an exception; and yet it is in this prison that the manufacture of shoes, say its officers, might easily be carried on with cash profit. In the Georgia penitentiary, in 1880, there were 87 sentenced for life; 104 for terms above ten years and less than twenty; 101 for twenty years; 10 for higher terms up to forty years, and only 22 for as low a term as one year — in a total of 1185 inmates. In the Texas State prison, in October, 1882, with a population of 2378, only *two* were under sentences of less than two years' length.* To increase the advantage, the long sentences fall with special frequency upon the class that is assumed to require an undue length of training. In the Georgia convict force just noted, for instance, only 15 were whites among the 215 under sentences above ten years.

But why need we linger to show that there is ample opportunity in these prisons to teach the inmates trades, if only the system were such as to permit it? The choice of a better system does not rest upon this. In the Contract and Public Account prisons, it is not at all the universal practice to make the unskilled convict acquainted with a trade. This is done only in a few prisons. Generally — much too generally — he is set to some simple task, some minute fraction of the work of manufacturing some article, a task that he learns to do at most in a few days, becomes skillful in within a few weeks, and continues to do unceasingly from the beginning of his imprisonment to the day of his discharge. He works a lever or pedal that drives pegs into a shoe; or he turns down or up the rims of hats, or varnishes the heels of innumerable boots, or turns a small wheel that bottoms countless tin cans. He is employed according to his physical strength and his intelligence. It is no small misfortune to society that such industries leave the convict at last without a trade; but, comparing them with the tasks of the lessees' camps, it may be said they do not murder him, nor torture him, but are to those tasks what light is to darkness.

After all, these objections to the abandonment of the Lease System, even if they were otherwise well grounded, would fail at last when it comes to be seen that the system does not make good even its one poor profession; it does not, even pecuniarily, "pay." In flush times it hands in a few thousands — sometimes even a few ten thousands — annually, into the State treasury. But its

* Some idea of the ferocity of these sentences may be got from the fact that 509 of these Texas convicts were under twenty years of age.

history is a long record of discoveries and rediscoveries on the part of the State that she has been the losing party in a game of confidence, with nobody to blame but herself. How much has thus been lost morally, baffles estimation; suffice it to say, enough ungodly gains have gone into the hands of lessees to have put every leased prison in the country upon a firm basis under Public Account. Every system is liable to mismanagement, but there are systems under which mismanagement is without excuse and may be impeached and punished. The Lease System is itself the most atrocious mismanagement. It is in its very nature dishonorable to the community that knowingly tolerates it, and in its practical workings needs only to be known to be abhorred and cast out. It exists to-day, in the twelve American commonwealths where it is found, because the people do not know what they are tolerating.

But is there any need for them longer to be unaware of it? There is none. Nor is there any need that the system should continue. We have heard one, who could give no other excuse, urge the unfavorableness of the southern climate to prison confinement. But what have the reports of prisons in this climate shown us? That the mortality outside, among the prisoners selected (as is pretended at least) for their health and strength, is twice and thrice and sometimes four and five times as great as among the feebler sort left within the walls. True, some of the leases still have many years to run. What of it? Shall it be supinely taken for granted that there is no honorable way out of these brutal and wicked compacts? There is no honorable way to remain under them. There are many just ways to be rid of them.

Let the terms of these leases themselves condemn their holders. There is no reasonable doubt that, in many states, the lessees will be found to have committed acts distinctly forfeiting their rights under these instruments. Moreover, with all their looseness, these leases carry conditions which, if construed as common humanity and the honor of the state demand, will make the leases intolerable to men whose profits are coined from the flesh and blood of human beings. It is safe to say there is not a lessee in the twelve convict-leasing states who, were he but held to account for the excesses in his death-roll, beyond those of prisons elsewhere in enlightened countries, would not throw up his unclean hands in a moment and surrender to decency, honesty, humanity and the public welfare. But we waste words. No holder of these compacts need be driven to close quar-

ters in order that, by new constraints, they may be made to become void. They are void already. For, by self evidence, the very principles upon which they were founded are *contra bonos mores;* and though fifty legistures had decreed it, not one such covenant can show cause why the seal of the commonwealth and the signatures of her officers should not be torn from it, and one of the most solemn of all public trusts returned to those official hands that, before God, the world, and the State, have no right to part with it.

The CHAIRMAN: It is said of the Apostle Paul that when he was upon his journey to Damascus he thought within himself that he was verily doing God a service; and I am inclined to think from the correspondence I have had with the friends and advocates of the Lessee System in the south, that they think very much the same way. I hope that when they see Mr. Cable's paper they will, like the Apostle, see a great light.

The system is so backed by political and financial power in the south that it requires a man of courage and conviction to take a stand against it. I compliment Mr. Cable for the ability and fidelity to principle evinced in the paper to which we have listened with such absorbing interest.

GOV. ANDERSON, of Kentucky: I feel like making a few remarks under the extraordinary pressure of these most extraordinary facts, which have been presented by Mr. Cable to-night. Mr. Cable's statement is a summary of public official reports from Governors down to wardens, and they are all alike. He did not mention a case where there could be any doubt. Every statement that he made was quoted from the reports of officials against whom they bear. As a Kentucky man, and I am a Kentuckian of Kentuckians, I am proud of her people and of our state; but, I do say that in our institutions here, there are cruelties even more infamous, and abuses greater than have been mentioned by the gentlemen. What right has any state or government, standing in

loco parentis as they call it, to take charge of a man's life and practice the cruelties of which we have heard this evening, and which many of us know to be true? As for myself, I formally deny, for example, the right legal or equitable, of any government whatever, to take the life of a state prisoner, for attempting to escape. Prisoners of war, make another and a very different question. The prisoner has a natural right — often a just right — to escape if he can. It is the state's *duty* to detain him by walls, guards, pursuits and recaptures, but *not* to deprive him of his life, except alone "in *due course of law* and by the judgment of his peers." If, then, the state be without this legislative power, by what possible license can she depute this awful franchise to the sudden whim or passion of a single hireling, perhaps a drunken guard?" But we of the south, sir, do yet worse. By our contract system we violate *our own* state law, and the sentences of the court, condemning these wretches "*in due course of law*," to the forfeiture of their liberties. And we hand them over to be "guarded" in plain, open view the air and forest, breathing only of liberty and happiness — we tempt them by the strongest possible solicitations and opportunities to escape — and then, we say to a more private man, without a scrap of state warrant, and actuated solely by the sheer greed of avarice, an avarice equal (to say the least quite equal) in amount, to any that ever actutaed the bestriped thieves and burglars in the whole line of convicts; "we, of the south," noted for our kind-heartedness all over the world — we say to these hirelings of private contract-avarice or cruelty: "There they march outside of walls, on the highway, in the open air, with the woods in sight, tempted as they are to fly, yet, *if they fly*, shoot them dead in their tracks." True, you have no warrant or commission of any sort,— it will be without law and against all law, from Magna charta down,

this, their imprisonment and mode of punishment, is *against* the statute of crimes and the sentences of the courts, which tried their respective and *so different* cases, but (you have loaded muskets on your shoulders), shoot them dead, each, any, all, young or old, innocent or guilty; shoot them dead if they offer to escape!"

On this state of the facts and of the law, I modestly beg leave to amend the wonderfully able and perfect report of this distinguished gentleman "of the south," Mr. Cable. After reading from these prison reports (that is reports of *prisoners*, often a hundred miles away from their prisons?), the words "*shot*," "*shot*," "*shot*," against prisoners names, in long columns, and then, "*died*," "*died*," "*died*," against *other* names, Mr. Cable proposed as he says, "to read between these latter lines," and he could only find "*shot, shot, shot*," as before, and to the end. Well, sir, I insist upon my privilege "to read between the lines," also. And my reading is in letters of blood, and of blood guiltiness too, in place of other words, "*murder! murder!! murder!!!*"

And I will furthermore aver, that it is exactly that kind of murder for which, as our noble friend from Philadelphia would say, "*hang* him, sir; hang him!" Neither ought it to make any difference in a land of just and equal laws, whether the "guard" who slew, was a prison or state officer (even the Governor himself), or the unofficial hireling of an avaricious contractor. *Being a murderer, he ought to be hung.*

These, Mr. President, are my opinions and sentiments about law, law penalties, and human life and rights, and for one "southern man," I do not propose on this question, to be stultified by any appeal to the prejudices of the Mason and Dixon line, politics or philosophy. As a man, I speak of, and for men, all over the world, and of course, without limits by states or sections, or by their contemptible prejudices.

DR. WALK of Pennsylvania. As the representative of one of the eastern or middle States, I, of course, am not so well posted upon this question as some of our southern friends. I hope, however, that the remarks here this evening will be widely disseminated, so that they may come within the knowledge of all. I am sure that all that is necessary for the corrections of these evils is to make them thoroughly known to the people of the States who have been so unfortunate as to suffer by them. It is utterly impossible to conceive that the people whose kindness and hospitality we are now enjoying would tolerate these abuses if they were known.

DR. GILL: I am glad that this subject has come up for consideration. I apprehend that there are few, even at this Conference, who have given this subject the consideration it merits. I will mention one case that I know within my own knowledge. In the state of Ohio, within ten years, there has a wing been built to the penitentiary without the semblance of ventilation. This too, in an institution known everywhere for its excellent management. I visited the Prison last Saturday to satisfy myself. Now why was this? Was it ignorance? Most assuredly it seems to me it was ignorance among those who had authority for the time being. Every one of any intelligence knows the importance of ventilation in any place where there are large bodies of people. And is this taking proper care of those who are under the care of the State, to thus expose the lives and welfare of their charges? Now, in reference to the reports from the States, I have found it impossible to get reports from many of these States, where the Lessee System has such a hold. From Arkansas I could get no report; but I was determined to have one anyway, and wrote to my friend ex-Governor Fletcher, of Missouri, who wrote to his friend the Lieutenant Governor or Treasurer of Arkansas, I forget which he was, and so procured the

desired document. I wish to thank Mr. Cable for the report from Louisiana, which otherwise I could not have gotten. The report from Kentucky I got, but it was so imperfect that I could not use it.

Dr. BYERS: It is within my time that the Lessee System has been abolished in my own State. And I am glad that we are not now one of the States to which Mr. Cable's report can apply. The trouble with us in our institutions, as with many of the rest here, is that with every change of administration of the State government the officers of the institutions are all changed. The plan adopted for the Ohio Penitentiary provided for abundant ventilation, but the State administration changed, and those who knew all about that plan were put out of office, and those who came in did not know, and thus it happened that there is no ventilation. The people of the South do not really know how bad the Lessee System is. Within the last six months, in conversation with an ex-Governor of Georgia, he assured me that the system in Georgia was as good a one as can be devised. He was really sincere, too; an intelligent and shrewd man; yet he thought the Georgia system perfect.

Mr. CARRIGAN, of Massachusetts: For some time I was the representative of an eastern journal and traveled considerably. I made it a point to study the Contract System as much as I could, and I found that in a great many of the States then, and I doubt not now the fact still is the same, the physician of the jail who is supposed to stand between the prisoners and the contractor and say when the former shall work, was practically in the hands of the contractor. I have been told by convicts that they have been forced to labor when they were sick, because the physician in charge was not for the interest of the commonwealth, but for the contractors. When I was on this round I was not in the interest of the commonwealth or the contractor or the

prisoner, but for the purpose of publication, and I became fully aware from this impartial standpoint that men were compelled to work when they were barely able to stand; and this, too, when there was a physician there whose duty it was, and for which he was paid, to see to it when they were sick that they should not be made to work.

I have been called upon to witness ten executions. I speak for the enlightened State of Vermont. It has representatives here and I wish they would listen to me. In that State, and in a great many other States when there is an execution, they have a barbarous system. I have interviewed men under the sentence of death, and while interviewing them, was in the hearing of the sound of the hammer which was making their scaffold. I do not stand up here to say men ought not to be executed, but I do say that if men are to be executed, they ought to be executed in a decent manner.

I believe the death sentence should be read to a man in his cell. I do not believe that there should be an execution a half an hour long. I believe it should be done as speedily as possible. It all can be done in three or four minutes if the officials so desire.

I believe that when a man has a dying statement to make that he should be allowed to make it, provided he does so in appropriate language. This is forbidden in Vermont. There was a man in Vermont under sentence of death, and just before the event was to take place, I had an interview with him which was published in the Boston *Herald*, and thirteen minutes before the time for executing him he was reprieved. That man was reprieved the same way four times.

In 1810 Stephen and Joshua Bunn were indicted for the murder of a man, and under the idea that by pleading guilty they could get off lighter, and being urged to it by prison officials, they confessed. Their confession was

published, and the very man whom they were accused of murdering, was found by its means and the prisoners liberated.

The Conference took a recess till morning.

EIGHTH SESSION.

THURSDAY MORNING, September 27, 1883.

The Conference was opened with prayer by Rev. O. C. McCulloch, of Indiana.

The State of Minnesota reported through Mr. H. H. Hart, Secretary of the State Board of Corrections and Charities.

REPORT OF MINNESOTA.

The Governor of Minnesota sent to Madison, last year, the largest delegation, except that of Wisconsin. That delegation brought forth fruit. Upon its return, several of the best men in the State determined to leave no stone unturned to secure the creation of a Board of Corrections and Charities. Mention might be made, among others, of Judge A. H. Young, M. McG. Dana, D. D., and Dr. W. H. Leonard. By the active efforts of these and other citizens, heartily seconded by the leading newspapers of the State, a law was secured, closely modeled upon that of Ohio. The Board consists of six members, not more than three of whom can belong to any one political party. The Governor of the State is ex-officio President. Except the power of investigation, the Board has only advisory powers. Governor Hubbard has shown a hearty interest in the work of the Board, and in securing the best men to serve on the Board.

The rapid growth of the country and the multiplication of population have compelled the development of public institutions in Minnesota within the past fifteen years such as have been the growth of half a century in other states. In looking back upon this pioneer work, we have reason to congratulate ourselves that it has been done so well. Our institutions have necessarily been modeled after those of the older states from which we came. Many faults have been copied; but, on the other hand, some faults have been avoided, notably that of extravagant building.

A wise conservatism has governed legislation and execution hardly to have been expected in so young a state.

We do not believe in rotation in office in public institutions. Professor Noyes, Superintendent of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, has served for seventeen

years; Dr. Bartlett, of the First Hospital for the Insane, and Dr. Riheldaffer, of the Reform School, have each served for sixteen years; Warden Reed has served for eight years, and there has not been a change of superintendents in any State institution since his appointment.

The Minnesota hospital for the insane, at St. Peter has a capacity of five hundred and fifty, and was built at a cost of about nine hundred dollars per capita. An annex is now being built at a cost of two hundred and fifty dollars per capita, to accomodate one hundred chronic patients. This chronic asylum will have its own kitchen and subordinate officers; but be under the superintendent of the first hospital. This arrangement secures competent supervision, skilled treatment, facility of transfer; while at the same time provision is made for the highest economy of buildings and maintenance.

The per capita expense is only $3.81 per week, notwithstanding the extra cost of fuel and clothing in our high latitude; yet we believe that ample provision is made for comfort and health.

The second hospital for the insane, at Rochester, is under the efficient direction of Dr. J. E. Bowers. This hospital, when complete will have a capacity of five hundred, at a cost per capita of not more than $800. About one-third of the male patients are kept on the open door system. Great attention is paid to out door exercise and labor.

The institutions for the deaf and dumb, for the blind and for the idiotic and imbecile, are also situated in or near the beautiful city of Faribault. They are separate institutions, but are all under a single board of trustees.

The school for the deaf and dumb has a capacity of two hundred; cost $1,000 per capita and maintains about one hundred and forty pupils at an annual cost per capita of about $225.

About one-third of the pupils are taught articulation. In the industrial department, trades are taught which enable the pupils to become self-supporting. Shoe-making, tailoring, printing, broom-making, and coopering are taught.

The shops are run at a loss of about $300 a year, but we consider it money well invested.

The School for the Blind is superintended by Prof. J. J. Dow; attendance thirty-five to forty; cost of building about $600 per capita. The building is now being enlarged to a capacity of 80.

The School for Idiots and Imbeciles was opened as an experiment in 1879. It is now established in the confi-

dence of the people. The building now occupied cost about $500 per capita and has a capacity of fifty. Its capacity is to be doubled the coming year.

The State Reform School has been eminently successful in its proper work. It has been in operation for sixteen years, and after careful inquiry not more than three or four of the boys have been known to have been sent to any prison. We do not teach our boys chair bottoming or mattress making; very few employers want such work; and if they did want it, the very fact that a boy can do that work is evidence that he has been in the Reform School. Our boys are taught gardening and floriculture. Those who show aptness for it are taught the tinner's trade. A few learn baking or tailoring. The majority work in a shop where toy wagons, sleds, wheel-barrows, etc., are manufactured. Here they learn wood turning, painting, and something of carpenter work.

Our boys have no difficulty in getting remunerative employment.

The State Prison is most unfortunately situated on the main street and close under the bluff at Stillwater. The administration of this prison is admirable, sanitation is good. Discipline is mild but firm; but it makes no claim to be a reformatory prison. There is no grading of prisoners; no resident chaplain; no school. The success of the "good time" plan indicates that much might be done by systematic work for the younger prisoners.

The contract system prevails and three hundred free laborers work inside the prison, with the convicts. The prison cost about $1,440 per capita. The current expenses average $196 per capita, and the earnings average 98 per capita — just half. I regret to say that it is the ambition of the management to make this a large, self-supporting prison, and the last legislature arranged for the expenditure of three hundred thousand dollars to that end.

Adult reformatories are in their infancy with us. The city of St. Paul is building a work-house modeled upon that at Detroit. One wing is already occupied. Minneapolis is contemplating a work-house.

The county institutions of Minnesota are of the same character substantially as the eastern institutions after which they are modeled.

The small jails are usually better than the large ones. We find the usual herding together of prisoners of all characters and conditions for mutual converse and education. We find prisons filthy, unventilated, gloomy,

cold, dangerous to officers. We find them built without plan, managed without system, administered without rules. Our poor houses are much better than the jails. They constrain few children and insane persons. Many counties have no poor houses, but either board their poor, or provide for all by out-door relief. One of our wealthier counties has just built a new poor house, at a cost of $8,000 or $9,000. On visiting it when near completion, our board found that the plan provided for no bath-room; a basement laundry with no drain; a large dining-room with but one window; no sitting-room for either sex. The pauper's exit was through the dining-room, and the front door of the overseer's residence opened into the pauper's kitchen. Heat was to be provided by a hot air furnace, in which the inlet for cold air was one foot by three, while the chief ventilator in the room above was six by eight inches. We hope to prevent such mistakes in future.

We are deeply pained to report the death of Mr. E. W. Chase, of St. Paul. Mr. Chase has been for years the efficient agent of the society for the relief of the poor. His wise and helpful administration did much to diminish pauperism, and to establish the spirit of independence among the poor. He was a member of the conference at Madison, last year; returned home ill and lived but a short time. Minnesota feels his loss.

Hon. D. W. Ingersoll, President of the Minnesota State Reform School presented the following report from that institution:

The Minnesota State Reform School was opened January, 1868, with one inmate. The board of managers were all men who had had no previous acquaintance with or particular knowledge of such an institution. One of our number was appointed superintendent, and two visited reform schools, spending a short time in getting an insight into their methods of handling and governing large numbers of boys in companies.

Therefore, we had no traditional or professional theories to carry out, but were left free to pursue our own ideas as to the best methods of training children and reforming those who had gone astray.

The subject presented itself in this light. The youth sent to this school will constitute one or more families of which the superintendent and matron must stand in the place of parents, who must aim to govern and train those children with a view to their life, as they would their own children. What would they do with this boy

if he were their own boy? They should require of him obedience, application to study, industry and good moral conduct, and by a study of his disposition, tastes and abilities, seek to prepare him to earn an honest living and serve his generation in that calling to which he is best adapted.

We have aimed to carry out this idea. In doing so we have depended first, on moral and religious teaching; second, on the instruction of the school room.

The school with us has never been a side issue, pushed into the early morning or late evening hours. School is made the first business of the institution; each boy and girl gets a four hour session of school each day under competent and faithful teachers.

Our next object is teach all the boys who are of proper age, some useful trade or employment. We have turned out a large number of tin smiths, wood turners, workers with wood working machinery, carpenters, painters, some shoe makers and tailors. Our shops are maintained for the one purpose of teaching the boys trades at which they can command wages, and earn an honest living when they go out.

While we strive to make our shops self-supporting, we do not claim that they yield to the state a present income equal to what might be earned at some other less skilled labor.

But we claim a larger profit to society in the future, by turning out to it intelligent and skilled workmen. For the encouragement of others engaged in like labor, we are able, with gratitude to God, to state that the fruits of our efforts have been most encouraging and we have been greatly blessed.

At the close of fifteen years of labor, we are able to count among our discharged boys, men in business for themselves in the various lines of trade, men conducting shops of their own, men foremen for other establishments, railroad conductors, railroad engineers, telegraph operators, book-keepers, students continuing their studies and some studying professions, besides hundreds earning an honest living in the various walks of life.

Our boys have a good reputation outside; and many who have employed them give them the preference. We esteem it a great advantage that we have had the opportunity of forming our institution from the foundation, beginning with a single inmate and growing to about forty the first year, it was comparatively easy to form a healthful life and establish a moral standard which the inmates themselves grew into and help maintain. For

the same we have been in a more favorable position to resist the tendency to fall into a life of institutionalism that sinks the individual into the mass, and forgets that each child has special needs and requires individual treatment and parental care.

We call no boy by his number. We have never locked a boy up as a discipline. We try to keep alive in the minds of all officers and teachers the fact that our children are like children at home, that they receive sympathy, care and protection of the weak against the strong. Much that is set down to viciousness in a child from seven to twelve years of age, when properly understood, will be found to spring from the ignorance and inexperience of infancy. It not unfrequently happens that children of that age find themselves reproved or punished for what they thought innocent or commendable.

The king's daughter said to the mother of Moses: "Take this child away and nurse it for me." So society and the state says to all engaged in child raising: Take these children and bring them up for me. The nearer we approach in love for the children under our care, to the love of the mother for her charge, the better will we succeed in the administration of our trust.

The following letters were presented by the President of the Conference:

F. H. WINES, ALAMEDA, California, Sept. 19th, 1883.

President of the Annual Conference of Charities, Etc.:

DEAR SIR—At the last moment, I regret to say, that I am prevented by unavoidable circumstances from attending your convention, to which I have been appointed by the Governor as the Commissioner from this State.

I enclose some memoranda from Mr. Dooly, the efficient Superintendent of our "Boys and Girls Aid Society," of which I am a Trustee, for the chairman of the committee of Preventive Work among children, and which he desires me to say, he wishes to be considered rather as showing attention to a request, than as embodying the full amount of information which he would desire to furnish.

I hope by the next conference to be able to furnish all needed information from this State and to be able to unite with you in your most important work.

I send you a "resolution" now under consideration of the Committee on Prison Reform, which will indicate generally my conclusions from my investigations and experience so far. I also send you some copies of a paper which was unanimously adopted by the convention here to represent its views on Prison Reform.

Will you be good enough to order for me ten copies of your proceedings, the amount for which I will remit by return of mail, as soon as I know what it is. I have mislaid the form of application you sent me.

Our Committee on Prison Reform is steadily pursuing its work, and the kind interest you have invariably shown in our proceedings will always be thankfully remembered by

Yours very faithfully, E. R. HIGHTON.

At a meeting of the Joint Committee on Prison Reform, etc., held at the office of Henry E. Highton, on the 27th day of August, 1883, the following resolution was proposed:

Resolved, That this committee in the present stage of its investigations would place on record its convictions as to the general principles which should govern the legislation of the State with regard to the methods which should be adopted for the diminution of crime.

1st. The utmost encouragement should be given to the formation of child-saving organizations, such as Infant Shelters, Kindergartens, Boys and Girls Aid Societies, Industrial Schools and Reformatories.

2d. The establishment of a system of penal discipline for those who have become criminal, at once deterring and reformatory, in which while recognizing industry as an important factor in the reformation of criminals, its financial results should be of secondary importance, and the system should be so adjusted as to prevent all possibility of contamination, by separating the criminals during the early parts of their imprisonment and gradually fitting them for emancipation by some modification of what is called the "Machonichi" system of prison discipline. But that following an inexorable law the system should compel them to realize that "the ways of transgressors are hard," and that criminals must work out their own salvation under those just conditions in which they had placed themselves. That "love in law" should be the governing principle of their management, but no sentimental "treatment" of prisoners should be permitted.

That we consider the principle of *indefinite sentences* liable to very grave objections.

3d That encouragement should be given to all methods for aiding prisoners on their release, and some means for careful and strict, but judicious supervision of discharged prisoners should be adopted.

4th. That some inter-state method for the registration and identification of convicted criminals should be adopted.

Ordered that a copy of the foregoing resolutions be sent to each member of the Joint Committee for consideration.

(Signed) E. R. HIGHTON,
Chairman.

(Signed) M. C. BRIGGS,
Secretary.

ST. LOUIS, September 25, 1883.

FRED. H. WINES,
President of National Conference of Charities and Corrections.

DEAR SIR: I had greatly hoped to be able to be present and take part in the proceedings of your convention now in session in my old native state, and the city in which I in the first years of my life resided, but I find it impossible.

I beg leave to enclose to you some thoughts of mine published in the St. Louis *Republican*, on the 12th of March, 1883, headed "Penitentiary Convicts — Their Treatment. Crime Inherited."

I would be glad to see your convention memoralize congress to establish prisons for all Federal prisoners to be controlled by commissioners appointed by the President. Such prisons would become models for the states.

I would be glad to see your convention memoralize every state legislature in the Union to abolish the system of hiring out convicts to contractors, who can have no interest in them except to make their labor to them as profitable as possible, and who I am sure, are often

most brutally cruel, as the reports from Sing Sing and other penitentiaries show, and to recommend instead that all penitentiaries be managed and controlled by a Board of Commissioners and that when a person is convicted of crime and sent to the penitentiary, he or she should not be sent for a term of years but until this Board of Control could recommend the release of such criminal on the ground of reformation — upon being released the prisoner to keep himself registered with the Board of Control as to his locality and occupation. This would induce good behavior in the prison to get released and out of the prison not to be returned, and on failure to keep up this registration the criminal should be returned to to walls of the prison. A person once convicted and sent to the penitentiary a second time for criminal offence should be confined for life as having given evidence of an uncontrolable character that could not refrain from wrong to his fellowman. Society must protect itself against the criminal classes, and all such should be inside prison walls, humanely treated, or under surveillance, and if all the states would adopt this system and communicate with each other, the commission of crime would be greatly lessened. To carry out my views would require some legislation in most of the states which would, in most cases, amount to this; that juries should simply find the party guilty or not guilty, and if guilty, then the party should be sent to the penitentiary, there to remain until this "High Prison Commission" of the state could recommend to the Governor to pardon the person so convicted, and no pardon should ever go until this commission could recommend the pardon on the ground of the reformation of the convicted man. No criminal man should be again turned loose upon society unless he is a reformed person — keep the criminal in prison if forever unless he or she is reformed and under surveillance during life if outside the walls, that we may know they are not again preying on society.

If capital punishment were abolished I would counsel that the pardoning power be taken from the Governor and that no person convicted of murder should be pardoned except by the unanimous recommendation of the legislature to the Governor. Persons have been wrongfully convicted of murder and if it can appear that such was the case, the legislature would not hesitate to recommend pardon.

The inhumanities perpetrated under the Contract System and the neglect of all that is essential for reformation cry aloud to God that every Christian in the land raise his voice to abolish the hell-born system of inhumanity and cruelty of man to man.

Our great hope is in the pulpit and the press for these reforms. The Press does cry aloud as now and then some startling act of barbarity gets outside the prison walls, for be it remembered that the contractors and those who inflict punishment are in alliance to show the humanity of their treatment, and the poor prisoner is afraid to speak to the Legislative Committee or others who come to him, for he knows they will soon be gone and then he will be for another two years at the mercy of his tormentors to be punished for any complaint.

There is no remedy except to abolish the Contract System, and establish in all the States Boards of Control of the highest and best men in the state, with women for women prisoners.

The Savior says: "I was in prison and ye visited me not, etc.," and the Psalmist says: "The sighing of the prisoners came up to God, etc." God promises the greatest of blessings to us for performing our duty to them and a curse for failure. Remember those in bonds as if bound with them, all of which means that the Savior condemns all barbarity to the powerless ones under the control of others. It has application to the treatment of children by parents and guardians as well as prisoners. The Lord knew there would be

prisoners, but He enjoins on us to see that they are humanely treated; and let us whilst we insist on their being treated humanely insist also that unreformed persons shall not be turned out of penitentaries to again prey upon society. The idea seems to be or is the idea our opponents try to create, that all Prison Reformers are a sort of maudlin sentimentalists, a sort of crack-brained people — impracticable in their ideas and would empty the penitentiary of criminals to rob and murder, when all we contend for is humanity to the prisoner and his reform, and instead of again letting loose a vicious person on society, we could keep the criminal until a high commission would recommend his pardon on the ground of reformation.

May God crown the labors of your convention with his blessings and may the ministers of God and christians in every land as well as all humane persons become aroused to their duty to the voiceless prisoner, and never rest their agitations in the press, in the pulpit and everywhere until the prison contract system is utterly overthrown in every state, and the convicts of the country placed under the control of a high christian commission. He that saves a soul covers a multitude of sins. Let us try to reform the criminal, give him a good trade and restore him, if possible, as a useful member of society.

Very Respectfully,
ISAAC H. STURGEON.

NEW YORK, 33 Pine Street,
21 September, 1883.

MY DEAR SIR — In the State of New York, the contract system of convict labor in the State Prisons has become an element in the political canvass for the approaching fall elections. At the last session of the State Legislature persistent efforts were made to secure the abolition of contract labor, and though the efforts failed of direct success, they resulted in the passage of an act by which the proposition to abolish the contract system in the State Prisons was to be submitted to the popular vote at the general election to be held in November next. According to present indications, it seems likely that the vote in favor of such abolition will secure a very large majority. The measure thus to be submitted to the vote of the people is not, as seems quite generally to be supposed, a proposed amendment to the State constitution; it is simply a plan to obtain an expression of the popular opinion as to the policy of abolishing contract labor from the prisons. The vote can have no legal force in itself to effect either the maintenance or removal of the present system; but, as the expression of the will of a constituency, it is certain to be used with marked political effect in shaping the legislation of next winter.

This crusade against the contract system has originated mainly in the trades-unions and labor organizations which, in this State especially, command a large political following. The opposition is, nominally, to *contract* labor in prisons; the opposition, in its real animus, is directed against *labor* in prisons. Prison labor is the only kind of industry over which the trades-unions have thus far been unable to exert a controlling influence; hence, the determination to secure the suppression and abolition of industrial labor of whatever kind, in prisons. The prevailing indifference and lack of public enlightenment upon questions pertaining to prison management have prevented many intelligent men from understanding the drift of this movement and from making any effort to check it.

The point of attack upon prison labor has been skilfully chosen. The contract system, even under the most favorable management, is hard to reconcile with a highly reformatory discipline; but the contract

system, as actually administered in the prisons of this State, is characterized by some substantial and grave abuses. These abuses have been brought prominently into public notice, and have been made the basis of an attack on the entire contract system. The Knights of Labor have thus been able, while completely masking their ultimate object, to attract the attention of the public to real wrongs that actually demand correction.

It is a noticeable fact, and significant of the true aim of the movement, that while demands have been made within the past year for the abolition of the contract system, they have been unaccompanied by the suggestion of any other system as its substitute. The question to be submitted to the people for their vote is simply for or against the proposition to abolish contract labor. It would seem to require little argument to show that the abolition of contract labor without supplying some other mode of prison labor in its stead, would be a reckless measure. While enlightened opponents of the contract system believe that other modes of administering convict industry may be made to yield higher reformatory results, there can be no question that contract labor is preferable to idleness — better than a recurrence to the treadmill and crank. It is an axiom of prison science that industrial labor is the *sine qua non*, not only of convict reformation, but of orderly prison discipline.

In the possibility that the next legislature of New York under the stimulus of the popular vote may be induced to adopt some radical measure hostile to prison industries is the danger that now confronts the people of this State. The disastrous influence that such a precedent would exert upon the cause of Prison Reform throughout the country is sufficiently apparent.

An encouraging feature of the situation is found in the fact that a question of prison management is brought forward as a *political* measure. The whole subject of the treatment of criminals by the State ought to be presented to the public as an element of civil government, affecting the prosperity of the entire body politic; its problems are those of statesmanship, of social science, of political economy, bearing upon every citizen — not mere questions of benevolence and humanity toward the convict. When the public shall be brought to regard and to comprehend the subject in its political and economic relations, then, and in that way only, will Prison Reform become popular and its triumph become assured.

Yours respectfully,

EUGENE SMITH,

Secretary Prison Association of New York.

Dr. H. P. MATHEWSON, Superintendent Nebraska Hospital for the insane, reported for Nebraska as follows:

REPORT FROM NEBRASKA.

Nebraska has no organized Board of Public Charities, but certain persons have been commissioned by the Governor to represent the State at this Conference. The Constitution of the State of Nebraska provides for a Board of Public Lands and Buildings, consisting of the

Land Commissioner, Secretary of State, Attorney General, and State Treasurer, and under their supervision all the Charitable and Corrective Institutions are managed. This method has been so eminently successful that no call has ever been made for other supervision. Nebraska, although a new state, it being only sixteen (16) years since admitted to the Union, in all her Institutions, especially those for charitable purposes, I believe she is fairly up to the standard of other states. We have a home for the Friendless, an Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, an Institution for the Blind, a Reform School for Girls and Boys, and an Hospital for the Insane, where I have been charged with the management for the past six years. During this time no patient has been refused admission and none returned to the counties except in a few instances where no care, except feeding and clothing was necessary. It has been the purpose of the state to provide for all classes of the insane, and we have endeavored to so manage as to make this plan practicable by keeping expenses within reasonable limits. Fortunately a large tract of land, nearly one thousand (1,000) acres has been set apart for the benefit of the insane. This not only enables us to furnish a large part of our living, but it makes a sort of independent community with a variety of occupations, which are not only profitable but healthful and entertaining, and a degree of comfort is manifest through these sources, which I think cannot be obtained in any other manner. I am satisfied that the solution of the question, "How to care for all the Insane?" which is pressing itself upon every state, lies in this line of furnishing useful and profitable employment, thus in a degree, as far as is practicable, make such Institutions self-supporting.

Mr. Wm. Haight, an examiner of the Department of Justice, Washington, reported upon the prison work of the United States as follows:

MR. HAIGHT: I came here as an observer and did not expect to make any remarks, but as I understand that there are some members of the Conference who would like to know how the United States cares for its prisoners, I have prepared a few statements in regard to them.

The Federal Government has few penitentiaries and jails. Its civil prisoners are mostly confined in State and Municipal institutions. The penitentiaries under the control of the Government are those located at McNeils' Island, Washington Territory; Laramie City, Wyoming Territory; Deer Lodge, Montana Territory; Boise City, Idaho Territory; Salt Lake City, Utah; and Sioux Falls, Dakota Territory. All except the latter are, and have been for several years, in working order, under the wardenship of the United States Marshals of the respective territories.

The Penitentiary at Sioux Falls has but recently been erected. The only jails under the control of the Government are those at Washington, D. C., and Fort Smith, Arkansas. In the District of Columbia all violations of the local and Federal laws are punished at the expense of the Government, both for courts and places for confinement, except that in the case of persons committed to the work-house, fifty per cent. of the cost is borne by the District Government.

Until recently the United States District Court at Fort Smith, Arkansas has had jurisdiction of all violations of laws in the Indian Territory, where the rights of a citizen of the United States was in interest. Depredations committed by or controversies between Indians are adjudicated in the Indian courts. The jurisdiction of the District Court is so large that the great number of prisoners compels the Government to maintain its own jail at Fort Smith.

The Federal prisoners in county and city jails are as

carefully supervised by the court officers and agents of the Department of Justice as the accommodations of the institutions and the immense territory covered will permit of. All complaints are immediately inquired into, and such remedy as can be is applied.

Juvenile delinquents under sixteen years of age are sent to the nearest reformatory. Unfortunately the Federal laws make no provision for other than a stated term of imprisonment.

The merits of the Elmira Reformatory have not, therefore, been of much service. One or two young men have been sentenced to that Reformatory, but I believe that in each case there was no other means than the pardoning power which could get them out. The best legal opinion seems to be that, under the present law, United States prisoners cannot be lawfully sentenced for indefinite terms. In 1878, the Southern system of punishment was brought to the attention of the Attorney-General. He caused an investigation to be made, and, as a result, acting under the authority given him by law, he requested the judges in the Southern States to commit all prisoners sentenced for one year or over to certain Northern Penitentiaries. The Northern Penitentiaries were selected after careful study of the subject and personal inspection. It is well known to prison men, that the running expenses of an institution do not increase *pro rata* with the increase of population, and that, therefore, a certain number of prisoners is necessary to bring the expenses of a penitentiary on an equality with its earnings.

Taking this fact into consideration, the Attorney-General designated institutions which in his opinion were the best for the health and reformation of the prisoners, properly located and in need of prisoners. The Attorney-General than ordered annual inspections to be made of all prisons wherein United States convicts are con-

fined. At these inspections, each prisoner is seen personally, alone, by the agent, and given an opportunity to make complaint or state his experience.

As a result of this arrangement, United States prisoners are concentrated in a few of the best penitentiaries and reformatories in the country. Their proper treatment is assured by frequent inspections by officers acquainted with most of the penal institutions, and what is equally gratifying, at a saving to the Government of from fifty to seventy-five thousand dollars per annum.

It is unnecessary to add, that the results obtained are satisfactory to the Government and beneficial to the prisoners. All United States prisoners who become insane are transferred to the Government Asylum for the Insane in the District of Columbia.

There are in penitentaries and State Prisons, between nine hundred to a thousand Federal prisoners, and in jails, awaiting and under sentence, about fifteen hundred such prisoners.

MR. MILLS: Do I understand you that all prisoners are sent to northern institutions?

MR. HAIGHT: Yes, sir.

MR. MILLS: How long has that been the case?

MR. HAIGHT: That has been the intention since 1878. The Attorney-General designates these prisons.

The House of Reformation at Washington is designated to receive the juvenile offenders from all the Southern States, and the House of Refuge at St. Louis receives those from the Mississippi Valley. None who are over sixteen years of age are sent to those places.

MR. DEBRUIN: There are two prisons at Leavenworth are there not?

MR. HAIGHT: Yes, one at the Fort and one at the City. The one at the Fort is a military prison under the control of the Secretary of War. In this are confined those

who have committed breaches of military discipline, etc. All military offenders who commit crimes are sent to penitentiaries designated by the Secretary of War.

The President then requested Dr. Bell of Louisville to address the Conference.

Dr. BELL: I cordially agree with the gentleman who spoke a while ago, as to the results of this meeting. It has had a great many good results on the city — results that I know to be for the good of the city. You have imparted to us a great deal of knowledge which, but for your meeting here, we would probably have been years in acquiring. When I saw the wonderful doings of this Conference developed, it reminded me of that passage in the Scriptures, when the two disciples while traveling to Emmaus, were joined by the Savior, whom they knew not. He immediately began to discourse with them and astonished them by his wonderful wisdom. When they discovered who it was that had been talking to them, they said, "Did not our hearts burn within us while he spake?" That is very much the way we have felt here. Our hearts have burned within us as we heard the development of the doings of the members of this Conference.

Kentucky has been attending this Conference to become enlightened, and we have to acknowledge that we were far behindhand. Now that we know our defects, however, we will endeavor to pull up. Kentucky, though, has always been celebrated for her devotion to works of charity. I am sorry that that word is engrafted in our minds. These establishments ought to have been named establishments of public justice, instead of public charity. When the legislature made an appropriation for the establishment of a School for the Blind, that was not an act of charity. It was a mere act of justice, it helped those who could not help themselves. Kentucky has done a great work in some respects. I can remember when there was not an institution for the care of the

insane in the State of Kentucky. It was a long time before she recognized the necessity of having a public institution of the kind. Finally, she built one, and since then two others have been erected. There is, however, a deplorable want still. I hope the members of the Conference will accept the invitation extended to visit the Anchorage Asylum. I am sure that they will approve of a great deal that they will find there.

HEBREW CHARITIES DURING THE MIDDLE AGES.

BY S. H. SONNENSCHEIN.

It seems rather strange that my short essay on the subject, "Hebrew Charities in Medieval Times," was assigned for opening that day of our conference, which is to be dedicated to the discussion of "Preventive Work Among Children." I can account for this surprising arrangement only by thinking, that inasmuch as the Jewish Synagogue may justly claim the maternity of all Christian churches and charities, they, the children, are anxious to learn from her mother *that* preventive work which is meted out by precious ounces in order to stop wasting pounds of temporary cure.

Yes, Hebrew charity always lays the main pressure of its whole system on the point of prevention. "Help thy fellowman before he is reduced to beggary! Sustain thy brother before he breaks down entirely." This is the central idea of Jewish charity in all its branches and outlets. It is also the sum and substance of Jewish almsgiving.

Pauperism is an unknown thing among the Jews. Of course there are exceptions. But the very rarity of such exceptional cases proves the rule.

It will be worth while for this assembly of earnest Christian men and women, engaged in deliberating upon the national furtherance of the interests of charity, to hear something of the spirit and method of almsgiving in the medieval synagogue. The subject being rather historical than practical, a few retrospective words of comment may not be out of place.

Charity among the Jews, at the very beginning of our people, was not the effect of the mere voluntary impulse of the noble-hearted and opulent individual. It was the stern duty of all, even enforced, if necessary by the law

and its officers. Almsgiving was enjoined even on the poorest of the poor. So destitute was nobody among them, that he was unable to give a penny or a slice of bread. The mite of the widow was as precious and welcome as the bounty of the king. The very Hebrew words for the abstract virtue of charity, as well as for the concrete practice of benevolence to the poor and sick and abandoned, is distinctly peculiar. The same word, *Z'dakah*, that expresses the idea of justice, is the name for charity. *Acts* of charity are called in Hebrew by a compound phrase, *G'miluth chessed*, which means literally: *Repaying Love received*. How beautifully suggestive are these words. Language, this true and infallible reflector of the popular mind, tells the complete meaning. The Jew is not charitable because he thinks he does humanity some extraordinary service by helping the miserable and forsaken. Nay! He is in duty bound to do so. He simply pays a debt that he owes to his fellowmen. He never believes for a moment, that he has to expect some special reward as a premium for his charitable work. He simply pays his debts to humanity. Of course in our modern age, when fifty cents on the dollar is considered a very fair and honest settlement, we may sometimes be led to the conclusion of not paying our debts in full, and plead that our assets are not equal to our liabilities. But be it as it may, Jewish charity, wherever and whenever practiced, is from the outset a matter and consequence of rigid discipline, and not a mere result of good will and good fortune.

The drift of ancient Jewish history forced the Hebrews twice into captivity. The very nature of exiled existence, and all the political and social deprivations following in the wake of their cruel expatriation, prompted the Jews to give up country life and agricultural pursuits which once were their main work and habit. They left the field and the farm, and flocked into the towns and cities. There the Jew became a day laborer, or a mechanic, a tradesman, or a merchant, an artist or a scholar, lawyer or physician, like all other townsfolk do. By degrees the different avenues of commercial, industrial and professional pursuits, were closed before him, and nothing left open but the dangerous, slippery and obnoxious money trade. He was successful, nevertheless, but not to that extent to warrant the veracity of the prejudiced proverb, "as rich as a Jew." In many single cases this was and is true. But the majority of Jews, forced to live by thousands in the densely popu-

lated medieval cities, were simply eking out a very scanty sustenance by the dint of their hard industry and their frugal habits. Add to this the frequent occurrence of war, the many outbreaks of famine and pestilence, inflictions whose consequences fell much heavier on the city people than on the country folks, and you will have to admit that the medieval Jew, crowded and oppressed as he was, did not fare better than the rest of mankind when once the prey of poverty and misery.

But being trained through centuries in the school of true religion, sound ethics and decent economy, he suffered less than his unneighborly neighbors. He overcame much easier and sooner than they the fearful ravages of war, famine and pestilence. The medieval Jew had stronger powers of endurance and resistance. He knew by experience, fashioned into a system, how to battle with all sorts of misery. But this, his very elasticity and thrift, was his main misfortune. He became thereby the shining mark of general envy and persecution. The grim fury of Christian and Moslem fanatics was constantly chasing him. Plunder, pillage, arson and murder were his constant dread, only too often and too horribly realized. Driven from their homes and hearthstones, the plundered Jews fled to distant lands and far-off cities, seeking shelter among their brethren who were so fortunate as to live unmolested. The fugitives, poor and sore-hearted as they were, swelled the number of those already depending upon charitable help.

All this increase of misery, notwithstanding, Medieval Judaism knew nothing of pauperism. Hundreds and hundreds of destitute people, living in the midst of an isolated community, and yet, not a single pauper!

And right here we face that very problem which stares at the modern Philanthropist like the Sphinx of old, saying: "Either you solve my riddle or I destroy you!" The problem of a city crowded in some quarters with a dense and hungry population of poor people!

Learn from the Jews of the Middle Ages! They never allowed their poor to become paupers. They took up and applied such wise, simple and practical measures which prevented such a social calamity.

The main preventive against pauperism is: *not to let the poor ones feel that they are a distinct, a separate class of people.* All that grumbling and growling, all that rankling embitterment, which lies at the bottom of the poor man's self-degredation, and is of such a tremendous demoralizing effect, is permanently banished from

the precincts of poverty, when its victims are made fully aware of the fact that the *richer* man claims not to be the *better* man. And the poor, helpless Jew of the medieval era, never felt the sting of his beggerly situation. In more than one sense of the word misery was considered among his fellow-Hebrews, as a Divine distinction, rather than a punishing infliction. The whole devotional literature of his time is permeated with the spirit of that wonderfully encouraging text: "Whomsoever God loves he chastises." The poor man was a *persona grata,* not only in Heaven, but also on earth. The poor man was — I say it without exaggerating the fact — a kind of a pet among the medieval Jews. That undisputed feature of humanity, which even to-day finds its marked expression everywhere; that the helpless ones meet the only real and undivided sympathy among their fellow-sufferers, was grandly exemplified among the Hebrews of the Middle ages. Even the richest Jew was in comparison with the Gentile possessors of large fortunes, only a poor man; for his, the Jew's wealth was "a mighty uncertain thing," and it was, for this very reason so much more natural for him to lend his helping hand in all cases and under all circumstances. He was, while aiding and supporting, *always* a brother and *never* a benefactor! This is the magic secret of true charity's success. The poor recipient of charity never felt that there was such a thing as a broad and deep social chasm between him and the rich dispenser of mercy's bounty. Let me illustrate this social phenomena by relating some details of the educational charities among the medieval Jews.

"To learn and to teach" was the greatest ambition of the Jew. To raise a boy who was to be a student and a scholar of some repute was the glorious dream of every Jewish mother, whether rich or poor. The brains were seldom lacking; but the means and opportunities were not always on hand. The great academies of Jewish lore, where the sacred sciences were taught with full immunity and in well-secured quarters, were only few and far between. Jewish boys flocked by the hundreds, even by the thousands to such renowned seats of learning. The sons of the opulent were mingling with the children of the poor. But they were all treated alike. The richest of the rich did not find better shelter and finer accommodation than the poorest of the poor. They all underwent the same reception and attention. Merit, behavior, talent and application, were the only standards by which their preferments were executed. Moneyed

aristocracy alone was the poorest passport to any distinction or privilege. Brilliancy of brain and humility of heart were the only means to gain laurels and to win a reputation. And these Jewish students of the medieval era did not live like their Christian or Moslem contemporaries in monasteries, mosques, and the like, disciplined by monks and dervishes, oblivious of the world and its tribulations. Nay! the Jewish *Scholasticus* of that time lived among his people. He was just, according to his merit and character as a student, either the itinerant beneficiary of different households from day to day, making the rounds among the various sections of the community, or he was the permanent guest of some well-to-do family, who felt quite honored by providing for all the temporal wants of some excellent young man who, while being for all they knew, the son of one of the poorest widows in his native town, was nevertheless treated to all the comforts and luxuries a lavish household could afford.

This educational charity was one of the many resources for keeping the degrading influences of poverty away from the social structure of medieval Judaism. There was a constant intermingling of the different elements; stagnation and isolation were unknown evils. The poor ones did not loose their human dignity; the rich ones did not assume that haughty indifference which stamps them as snobs and dizzyheads. Charity among the medieval Jews thus proved in reality the humanizing and ennobling factor, for which the economy in the household of mankind intended it. It blessed the receiver, but it more than blessed the giver, for he was practically imbued with the lesson of humanity and the grand truth: all men are born equal! The sting of poverty was taken away from the aided, and the pride of opulence was suppressed in him who came to the succor of the needy. No rankling bitterness in the one, and no gaudy assumption in the other. How could the weeds of pauperism thrive in such a well cultivated social soil?

The underlying principle of all charity is humanity. The bedrock of faith putting a stop to the most infernal despair, and the heaven of earthly joy opening an infinite vista to the most intense satisfaction, is *Humanity!* Humanity is the root and flower of charity, and is best appreciated and understood when administered in the service of the gloomiest affliction or of the brighest fortune. The gloomiest affliction is the burial of a dear member of the family. The brightest fortune is the wedlock of a

pure and young maiden. But the wedding-day lacks its most brilliant paraphernalia when there is no dowry, no music, no dancing, no banquet; and the funeral is so much more distressing and appalling when a solitary, forlorn and dirty cart is "rattling the bones to potters' field." But such is the destiny of the poorest among the poor, that their matrimonial aspirations, the realizations of their chaste love and affiance, are hedged in and relentlessly curbed by the cruel fact of poverty and misery, and that their natural desire of giving their beloved dead a decent burial remains unfulfilled because they had not the means *to pay for it!* Only think of it! *To pay* for the performance of the final and saddest rite that man owes his fellow-man!

And right here, in both of these extreme events of human experience, the underlying principle of *all* charity, *humanity* stepped forward, *for the first time* in all the history of the race, among the Hebrews of the medieval era, and taught a lesson of practical fellow-feeling and benevolence.

Hebrew charity *never* knew a "potters' field" for the poor! The Jewish beggar, a perfect stranger to his fellow-Jews, when he happened to die among them, was taken care of with all the solemn respect due to the mortal remains of a human being The "Holy Brotherhood"—that was the name of a religious society especially organized for the purpose of tending to the sick, the dying and the dead—considered it one of their most sacred and sublime privileges to see to it, that no Jew, no matter how forlorn and abandoned he was while dying, should return to mother earth without receiving the ritual attention and ceremonial observances prescribed by a time-honored and impressive religious custom. And what was the most peculiar significance of all funerals among the Jews of the Middle Ages? They only differed in the *quantity* of the solemn display of grief and mourning, but *never* in the *quality!* The coffin was the same for rich or poor; the *burial ground* was the same for rich or poor; the *prayers* were the same for rich or poor; the *obsequies* were the same for rich or poor: *compassion* and the active help were the same for rich and poor. The equality of all human beings before the grim and temporary destroyer, and the equality of all human beings before the merciful and eternal Saviour, was thus demonstrated and exemplified in a manner and style which preached humanity just there, where its lessons are needed to be felt to their noblest advantage.

While the rather sad care for the sick, the dying and the dead was in the hands of a deeply rooted organization which had its branches in every Hebrew community, no matter how remote and how insignificant it was — the bright and sunny side of life was not lost sight of either. Amidst all the pall and gloom overhanging and enshrouding every walk of the medieval Jew, he still was a natural adept in that wonderful art that catches and retains more than one glimpse of the radiant sky which sheds light and warmth even over dark clouds, brooding storms and disaster. The medieval Jew could feel happy and gay at the slightest opportunity, probably just because these occasions were so rare and far between. And while he never failed to mourn in sincere condolence and kind-heartedness with the afflicted and forsaken, he also never missed an occasion where his innate sparkling vivacity and love of pleasure and display could find an outlet and expression. And he was the more thirsty for an occasional drink at the fountain of earthly joy and merriment, just because he was either chained to the prison wall of branded exile and seclusion, or a tyrant-ridden wanderer in "the valley of tears." He did not confine this, his thirst for hilarity and good cheer to his own household. He embraced every chance offering itself among his brethren. He had by all means a right to do so. Being at all times disposed to suffer and to weep with him, he never stood back when a time came when he could be merry and have a frolic among the other guests of his brother. And these merry amusements and popular frolics were sought and found among the poor as well as the rich. It was simply the sacred privilege of the rich Jew to pay the expenses of the poor Jew's festivities, whenever they occurred. And how the opulent ones vied with each other to obtain that sacred privilege! It was almost a kind of an auction resulting in the success of the highest bidder. To be a *Sponsor* of a newly-born boy in some poor Jewish household and to defray all the expenses of the festive board, around which all the members of the family and all their frends assembled with a hearty appetite and a gladdened satisfaction — was the special pride of medieval Jewish generosity. On more than one occasion did such festive gatherings in the humble quarters of the poorest excel in every particular the display and entertainment of the wealthiest among the Hebrews of the medieval *Ghetto!* And all this kind of charity was regularly the gift of a single individual.

But the very climax of individual, that is unorganized

charity among the medieval Jews, was to be seen in their traditional and excellent custom, to provide for the dowries of the poor and deserving maids in their midst. An old spinster was the rarest of rarities among the Hebrews of former centuries. The rich and beautiful young maidens — and there never existed an ugly young Jewish maiden at that time; they were all charming and well bred — they, the lucky ones, certainly met their match, in heaven made, just as soon as their parents wanted them to marry. But there were many pretty ones and just as deserving daughters of the poverty-stricken families. How to find husbands for them, that was the question. For no Jewish young bachelor, no matter how strong his attachment and longing, would have dared in those precarious times to establish a household of his own, without having the assurance that his bride brings him some substantial fortune, however small the sum might be. This was the sober and thrifty view the Jew of the middle ages entertained as to the prospects and possibilities of married life. Now, we, the children of a modern and more selfish age, would think that under such circumstances the possibilities of a *poor* girl to be married were rather below *par*. But it was not so. The daughters of indigent, aged and helpless parents, orphaned and penniless girls, had just as good a chance to become the happy brides of happy husbands as any of their richer young sisters and rivals in the matrimonial market. There were always plenty of opulent and generous Hebrews in every large and influential community, who were ready to furnish the means for *endowing* poor and deserving maidens with cash and every outfit necessary for a decent marriage. What a powerful lever these *bridal charities* as they were called, wielded in promoting and securing the purity of sexual relations among the young people and the integrity of the family ties among the old, I need not to tell. It speaks for itself. The most abominable effect, the most foul and venomous sting of pauperism, was thus radically foreclosed and destroyed. The *hearth-stone*, this primitive and protective altar of all humanity, was thus shielded against the most immoral and degrading of all social pollutions. *Manhood* and *maidenhood* in their significance were thus preserved wherever the medieval Jew dwelt, though in the most ignominious disfranchisement. His hearth, his home, his household, his fireside, his domestic happiness was safe and firm — and what more does it need to shield a

husband and wife and their children, against the severest trials and tribulations of poverty?

All the charities thus far outlined, and, above all, the paying of the ransom which was extorted by the rapacious oppressors of the Jews for the innocently imprisoned, and whose release was naturally considered the most meritorious of all acts of benevolence — all these institutions, noble and humane as they were in the spirit in which they were conceived, as well as in the manner in which they were managed, do not offer so thorough an insight into the principle and method of medieval Hebrew benevolence as the *distribution of alms proper*. Everybody who has the least experience in the field of almsgiving, knows how depraved and degrading beggary is to them, whose last resort of subsistence it became, and how easily deceived many kind and generous people are by that class of fellowmen who make beggary their profession. To avoid both those evils, the depravity of the receiver and the contempt of the giver, almsgiving among the medieval Jews was so organized, that bold and unblushing beggary, the tramping from door to door, became almost an impossibility.

In each larger Jewish community there were two distinct channels of eleemosynary bounty, each of them under the control of a distinct set of officers, whose occupation, as a matter of fact, was not a paid one, but that of trust and honor. One set of officers made their daily rounds to receive and distribute *food* among the poor, and the other set received and distributed *money* once in the week, on every Friday, the eve of the Sabbath. The community was thus thoroughly canvassed, and thus it was exactly known who was in need, and in what way the wanted aid and assistance would do the most good. All the various forms of almsgiving were regulated and prescribed by ecclesiastic legislation. Of course these laws were not of a petrifying and paralyzing nature; on the contrary they were thoroughly imbued with the soul of tenderness and vital sweet sympathy. They were simple *laws of charity*, codified rules and regulations as to the collection and distribution of alms, as to the standing and relations of the *benefited* and *benefactor*, etc. It was simply charity, reduced to a social science by the volume of unlimited experience and unlimited good will.

I shall, for the sake of practical illustration, quote a few of the most salient of these medieval Hebrew paragraphs of the Charity Code, and these few quotations

will prove it to the most indifferent skeptic that the old Hebrew dispensation knows a great deal more of real love and humanity, and considered acts of mercy and truth in at least the same divine light as any of our modern and enlightened benevolent organizations and institutions.

Almsgiving among medieval Jews was a matter of general obligation, and, if necessary, enforced by the municipal authorities. "Everybody was in duty bound to dispense with a part of his income for the benefit of the poor. Even the poor man, himself a beneficiary of public alms, was obliged, by law, to give something." This was practical charity, based upon the broadest democratic principles.

The individuality of the receiver of charity was always to be taken into the foremost consideration. There was no stinginess and no parsimony displayed. Each one, known to be in need, received just what he needed according to his station in life and his accustomed mode of living. "If he is simply hungry, feed him. If he be naked, clothe him. If he needs household goods, furnish it. Should he have been, by dint of his former wealth and dignity, accustomed to ride in his carriage with his liveried footman, see to it, that he be not deprived of these luxuries." This was practical charity, based upon the highest principles of magnanimity and noble tenderness.

"The poor man who is provided with at least two meals shall not be entitled to receive *daily* provisions. The poor man who has yet enough in his house to last for a week's subsistence, shall not be entitled to receive the *weekly* money endowment."

This law was intended for the protection and preservation of that independence and energy of even the indigent which, if once lost, makes of the industrious poor one a shiftless beggar, and of the hard working man in reduced circumstances a repulsive tramp. At the same time he was assured that he need not have to wait with his application for help till the last vestige of his subsistence was gone, and real starvation staring him in his face; charity came to his rescue long before "the wolf knocked at his door." His courage was kept up, his heart did not sink within him; and he thus retained that elasticity of mind, that fertility of his resources, whatever they were, which made it easy for him to recover the lost ground and soon again to resume his former position of independence.

"Widows and orphans had always the preference at the regular distribution of alms. Preference was also given to the better educated and of nobler descent. But mere blue blood and an old pedigree was not a sufficient title for preference. Thus were the democratic instincts of Charity well maintained without losing sight of the real merits of good breeding and proper education.

"Anybody who comes and wants something to eat shall receive food without further inquiry and examination. Such research and caution is only required in case the beggar appears in rags and demands raiment." This clause tells the whole old story of imposition and how to guard against it without committing an uncharitable act.

"If there are two poor men, who are not so bare of all subsistence as to be exempt from giving alms, they may mutually assist each other and thereby franchise themselves from the general levying of public charities." This conveys the practical illustration of the main chance in charity to wit: Love thy neighbor as thyself! by leaving, if possible the wanted aid, above all, to the care of the individual and not to a public burden.

"If anybody, destitute and in debt, receives charity to such an extent that the attention of his creditors is called to this abundance of pecuniary or other material aid; and if then the creditors would like to sieze by legal procedure the charitable bounty of their debtor, the authorities *must* protect the latter against all such action." What a beautiful warning for all high-handed and soulless creditors!

"If there is a poor man, whose native pride or delicate self-respect prompts him to refuse any kind of alms or public charity, he must be aided by way of clandestine assistance in the shape of an honorable gift or a loan. But it must be done in the most careful way, so as not in the least to cause the suspicion of the receiver, that you know anything of his dire necessities." What a tenderness and really humane generosity is displayed in this, my last quotation from a multitude of paragraphs and clauses enacted by medieval Judaism in behalf of their charities! It breathes freely and fully that sweet and fragrant air which is the life-giving atmosphere of the divinely gifted heart.

Verily — so everybody must admit — where such tender care and such delicate feelings prevailed, there the real secret of preventing the spread of pauperism was well known and well applied. Nobody knew better to distinguish between the *poor* and the *pauper* than the

medieval Jew. The only pity is, that the insurmountable barrier which separated him from his Gentile brother — a separation which was much more the fault of the Gentile than of the Jew — did not permit the revelation of the practical principles which dictated the mode as well as the meaning of Hebrew humanity.

But there is no Hebrew humanity. Humanity is neither Hebrew nor Christian. So much we have at least learned in these, our days of broad and sunny philanthrophy. Whether it was first practiced by Jew or Gentile, is a question which the true historian will decide. Here, we deal simply with the question, how to prevent the bane of pauperism. If the charities of the Hebrew in the Middle Ages have in their humble way displayed such a method and discipline, which is worth our modern consideration, they ought to receive it. And they will receive it! Anything which is conducive to a great lesson of true humanity will receive our attention, no matter where it comes from. Our main object is to destroy the deadly germ which is bred by the festering of the brutal despair and the maddened depravity of our pauper classes. It can only be checked by combined wisdom, carefully and humanely applied. The struggling and hard-working element of society must be taught by sympathetic co-operation that to be poor and destitute is by no means to be "without any means." They must be taught by practical life lessons, that even in our modern age, *necessity* is yet the mother of every real human wisdom and virtue!

Poverty is a blessing in disguise; pauperism a curse doubly cursed. Poverty is the divinely pre-ordained soil of true manhood and womanhood; pauperism the foul hot-bed of vice and crime in their rankest, deadly exuberance. This is the lesson of preventive charity which we try to teach, and this charity is neither Jewish nor Christian — it is simply and solely PRACTICAL HUMANITY.

Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, then presented the Report of the Standing Committee on Preventive Work among Children, of which he was Chairman, followed by other papers and discussions.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN.

The Committee on Preventive Work Among Children, in the discharge of the duties assigned it by the last Conference, has invited the preparation of several papers on different branches of child-saving work. The subjects selected, with the names of the respective authors, will be seen in the printed programme.

In connection with the announcement of a paper on Technical Education of Children, by Miss Kelly, of Pennsylvania, it should in justice to her be stated, that her paper has doubtless gone astray, otherwise, according to previous arrangement, it would have been received some time since. It was to have been mailed from London, England, where Miss Kelly is engaged in studying from a practical standpoint, the subject on which she was to write.

The Conference is already aware that an International congress was held in Paris, in June last, to consider and discuss questions relating to juvenile destitution and delinquency. This was conducted under the patronage of the French Government, and under the special direction of that important organization known as the Société Générale de Protection pour l'enfance Abandonnie on Conpable, of which a French philanthropist and jurist, Monsieur George Bonjeau, is President. To this Conference were invited those most prominently identified with child-saving work throughout the civilized world, from many of whom papers were also solicited. Several were citizens of the United States. Schedules of inquiry on certain points were widely distributed. Mr. and Mrs. Coffin, of Indiana, were, so far as known, the only persons from this country who attended the Conference. They were requested by the Chairman of the committee to make a report to this Conference on the Congress. Mr. Coffin has kindly complied with the request, and as he is unable to be present I will read his report, which, I may say here, is accompanied with an exposition of the "vote" adopted by the Congress, which will be translated from the French and appear in the printed proceedings.

On behalf of the Committee, I will say that it has aimed to submit few papers and these very brief, in

order to afford full discussion on one of the most important subjects that come before these Conferences.

The Committee further reports that an inquiry into the extent, character and present needs of child-saving institutions in the United States has been inaugurated, and much valuable material has been collected. The time, however, has been too short to enable the entire field to be surveyed, or to secure complete returns on which a satisfactory report could be framed.

ADDRESS OF JUDGE JOHN C. FERRIS.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen — As it devolves upon me to read to you a paper on this occasion, on the mode and manner of caring for helpless orphans, I will give you some parts of my experience for the past eleven years, touching more especially those of tender age.

In the first place I will preface by explaining that I was elected in 1872, to the office of Judge of the County or Probate Court of Davidson county, Tennessee, the county in which Nashville, a city of some 60,000 people, is situated.

The jurisdiction of this court extends to the persons as well as to the estates of orphans; legitimations, adoptions, the changing of names, the binding of apprentices, the general superintendance of the county charitable institutions, and provisions for the poor and unfortnnate. I have constantly since then filled the office, and it was in the discharge of its duties, that my attention was first directed to the subject.

I found that there were a great many orphans who had estates that had to be looked after constantly, to prevent waste or loss, but at the same time, that there was a much larger number of orphans who needed my attention, that had not only no estates, but not even a friend to guide them in a higher and better life. Almost daily my attention was directed to some one of those little ones, and thus their condition was made known to me. Some were deserted by parents, some were deprived of them by imprisonment, others by insanity, others by vice, yet others by sickness added to poverty, but the greatest number were orphaned by death. I also found that a great many waifs were left on doorsteps, and other places.

Now the question arose, how must I provide for these poor, helpless children, each of whom must one day be-

come a citizen? The first I took to my own home, where my wife, who was herself left an orphan at an early age, carefully looked after them for a few days, saw to the mending of their clothes, and the general changing of their condition and appearance for the better, believing with John Wesley, that cleanliness is next to godliness; thus they were got ready to be put — I knew not where. But the neighbors — I mean the women — found out that I had these children, and through pure love and kind, sympathetic hearts, put their heads together, and made up clothes and the like. One or two of the ladies, God bless them, took the tenderest little buds to their homes and adopted them as their children. This began to be talked about and the local press, the *American*, the *Banner*, and the *World*, took up the subject of getting homes for the children who had none, and this aroused the good, warm-hearted people all over the land, and they began to write to me for babies and children of all ages and both sexes; the demand far exceeded the supply of babies with black eyes, blue eyes, gray eyes; with light hair, black hair and a few wanted babies with red hair (sorter) to match and look like their adopted mothers.

This began eleven years ago, and has continued up to this good day. The papers materially aiding all the time by publishing all the adoptions and like proceedings from the minutes of my court.

In 1873, when the cholera raged in our city, many children of the most helpless class were left orphans; sometimes both the mother and father were taken off by this terrible disease in a single day, from a large family of small children, who were thus left on my hands; but all I had to do was to consult my memorandum book to see who wanted these little fellows, and then send them, or more frequently take them myself to their destinations.

I always preferred to take them myself when other engagements would permit, particularly when the parties were not well known to me personally or by reputation, in order that I might observe the environment, as the scientists say; at first I frequently found the interests of the ward demanded a change, but experience has enabled me now to judge from the application whether or not the applicant is the proper person for such a trust.

If the tenor is something like this:

"Dear Sir:—Please send me a good strong boy or girl from 12 to 15 years old," etc.

I am not long in reaching the conclusion that the writer is not so intent on gladdening his or her home by the presence of childhood made happy by kindness, as he or she is to secure cheap manual labor. And the probabilities are, that orphanage would find a hard task-maker.

I need hardly say that such applications find a short and quick way to the waste basket. On the other hand, if it reads—

"Dear Judge:—I have frequently seen from the newspapers that you often have to find homes for young and helpless children, and as we have no children of our own, my husband and I have concluded that we would adopt, one, or two, if you have brothers or sisters that you do not want to separate. We have a good, comfortable home, and would like for the children to be so young that they will not remember any other," etc.

I know that such an application as this means a happy home for some orphan child, and like the order of a cash customer to a merchant, it never goes long unfilled. My heart has been made glad a thousand times when I have seen such good people meet me with open arms and with tears in their eyes when I arrived with the children at their homes; how affectionately they would receive the little ones, with such expressions from the heart as "God bless you, my dear; how I do hope you will fill the place of my poor dead child." One lady who had lost three dear little babies, came from away out in Texas to adopt a small child.

I have several hundred so adopted in my city and county, and they would be an honor to, and the pride of any country on earth. They are being educated and cultured in the families of good, honest people; they go to our best schools, and are treated as dear children by kind and loving parents.

There are seven or eight who come under my immediate observation in the Elm-street Sunday School, that know nothing of their orphanage, nor will they ever know if they judge by the treatment they receive at the hands of their adopted parents.

I could talk to you here for a day, telling of instances where children are idolized in families where I have placed them.

I will here mention two boys who were adopted by an eminent physician and his good wife, and they commenced with them as their dear children, sparing no pains in their attentions to them, doing all that parents could do. The doctor died a few years ago and willed

them all he had, at the death of his wife. She now has them in the city, educating them for usefulness in life.

In another instance I took a gentleman to my home to see two boys, one seven and the other two years old, and a Presbyterian preacher, who had no children, went along through curiosity, to see these children; the gentleman who wanted the oldest boy, said he would take him, adopt him, and rear him as his own son. When the little two-year old saw this man petting his brother, and talking so tenderly to him about his dead mother, and of the happy, nice home he had for him, the smaller boy came up to the preacher, with his little hands outstretched and great tears in his eyes, and said to him: "'tant 'ou take me 'ome wid' 'ou?"

It took no more words on that occasion, for the preacher then and there grasped him up in his great strong arms, and said: "Yes! yes! God bless and love your dear soul! You shall share with me all I have." And to-day that boy is being educated in the State of Iowa by his adopted father. He is a bright, noble fellow.

I have sent officers to all sorts of abodes and taken the children, rescuing some of them from worse than death. Many of them were obtained from their vicious custodians or parents by reasoning and coaxing, but when force was necessary, the officers were authorized by the process of the court to employ it.

I claim for these children the love and sympathy of homes among the people, and to such they have all gone, with few exceptions. Some that were hard to reclaim, because too old, and too far gone, I have sent to the Sisters of Charity at the Good Shepherd's Home, at Memphis, and I have found that they never fail to save an erring girl; they use patience and prayer.

I claim and assert here to-day, that a child should have, in order to make anything of it, the sympathy, love and affection of some one, particularly during its earlier years. This is the demand of its nature, and right here, more than anywhere else, lies the great superiority of a Christian home over the mere mechanism of an Institution. Before the little mortal tongue ceases to prattle at night, teach it to pray for the immortal soul, tuck the cover under the little fellow when you put him to bed, and tell him how much you love him, and oh! how his little bosom will swell with love for you. They need kind words and gentle looks, yes, they need your prayers and your help. Take them to your homes, and give them home comforts, and they will live to bless you.

The good people are alive to this good work and will never tire. Fireside love and home culture is of infinite worth to children, and a gentle, sweet word, pleasantly spoken, weighs mightily on a child's heart.

I begin now to see great results from this work; last winter one of my orphans was a student in the Medical Department of the Vanderbilt University, and was full of pluck and energy. Another, a young lady, wrote me not long since of her marriage to a good, well-to-do young farmer; and another, in my own city, is a good bible scholar, and is well read in literature. I could go on for hours citing such instances, but prefer not to take any more of your time.

Now, from my knowlege of this subject, the result of eleven years' experience and observation, I would, without reservation, recommend to this Convention the home system. The managers of most institutions for orphans have, I believe, come over to this view, and keep the children no longer than is necessary to find good homes for them, but some institutions seem a little slow about finding the homes. My experience is, the younger the child the more easy to find for it a home, and the more apt it is to be benefited by good training; like the twig, train it young, while it is tender, and capable of receiving wholesome and lasting impressions.

There are thousands of vacant places in happy homes all over this broad land ready to welcome some precious little prattler to their embrace, from motives of pure love to the child, and devotion to its best interests. It is the love of God at work in the hearts of good people, it is the spirit calling and telling them to work, to do something for Him who will not forget even a cup of cold water administered to one of these little ones.

When our Savior was on earth doing good, if nothing that he had said or done had come down to us, save only the words, "Suffer little children to come unto me and forbid them not, for of such is the kingdom of heaven," — they alone, with the circumstance under which they were spoken, would have been enough to have immortalized him. To all men and to all times, those words would have mirrored a nature as deep and pure as the star-lit heavens, and a heart as genial and warm as sunshine.

Friends, parents, my Christian brethren, if you have any doubts or fears, or if your hearts are not right on this subject, put yourselves in this position. What is to be the fate of my dear little ones? What if they were left as others are now, destitute, homeless, friendless?

Oh! what a blessed thing then, to see that even such as these, may, in a Christian land, become useful men and women; themselves bearing witness, and blessing those who clothed them when naked, fed them when hungry, and prayed over them while sleeping.

It is the Christian's duty to do good to his fellow man, to lift up his head, though bowed in disgrace and shame; to alleviate pain, to lighten the burdens of life, to console even the felon in his cell, and direct him to Jesus, and tell him to go his way and sin no more. And in no field known to me, can the Christian labor with assurance of such abundant harvest, as in this of securing Christian homes for homeless children. So let us, who have assembled here, pledge ourselves as Christians, to do God's work in redeeming souls for His Kingdom while yet we may. Let us work while it is yet day, "for the night cometh wherein no man can work."

Mrs. Beveridge of Illinois: I presume Mr. Sanborn has called me out knowing that I have had some little experience in this line of work, and that I am, consequently, personally interested in Judge Ferris' paper.

Having been chairman of the "Home and Indenture Committee" of a School for Dependent Girls during the past five years, I have experienced some of the difficulties as well as the pleasures of placing children in homes, and have found the problem of selecting the right place for the child and the right child for the place a difficult one to solve.

Both wisdom and tact are necessary rightly to adapt the one to the other.

Many persons are ready and anxious (particularly in the country) to take girls from fifteen to seventeen years old; but in these cases the application simply means for cheap or unpaid labor.

As Judge Ferris' told of letters he had received, I recalled one or two similar ones in my own correspondence.

I quote one from memory:

"Please send me a girl sixteen years old, fair complexion, blue eyes and sweet face, pretty, good figure,

neat, quick, bright, amiable and industrious;—she must know how to sing and play the piano, be a good reader and have no relations," etc.

Of course, she would have had to be made to order, for no such girl would be long in finding a home by adoption, even had one of this type ever been an inmate of our school.

The writer continues:

"Get her a pass and send her to us free of charge, to" (a far western state) "We will clothe her, send her to school three months in the year, and if she gets married, will give her a bed, cow, horse and wagon. We prefer an au-f-i-n (orphan). My wife will learn her to p-e-a-n-t-e (paint). She must be willing to stand correcting."

We have usually from thirty to forty applications on file for girls of similar age, but most of these applicants seem to think their obligation ceases with clothing and three months yearly schooling, without the liberality of "bed, cow, horse and wagon," which offer is much better than the orthography of the western farmer's letter.

Under the above conditions there is no difficulty in finding so-called "homes" for *older* girls.

Occasionally the sweet face or some trick of voice or manner in a little one appeals to a bereaved heart and the child is taken to a *real* home in place of the loved daughter who has gone, while still more rarely a childless couple, or one whose Christly spirit goes out to the homeless and dependent takes the little girl to its generous care and surrounds it with a warm and lasting love.

While it is helpful and perfectly legitimate to take a girl for service, yet one need not always expect an adequate return. Great patience, forbearance and a true missionary spirit are requisite to the care and training of an ignorant or wayward girl in one's own home, and many a story of sore trial could be told on this side of

the question. While we urge the gathering into suitable Institutions of the homeless or neglected children of poverty or vice, we do not feel that Institution life, as such, is the very best for *young* children, who need always a home atmosphere and family influence, and a sort of brooding mother-love, that cannot be found where numbers are gathered, in even the best Institution. Let private homes be found for the children as fast as possible, and the tender mother-want crying in the heart of every little homeless child will be often answered by those who are only waiting a chance to fill the vacant chair and the empty heart. To seek out such homes and to fill *them* as well as the hungry child-heart, is a work of toil, but should be a labor of love to all interested in preventive work among children.

Judge J. F. LEWIS, of Tennessee: *Mr. President*—I have the honor to represent the Girl's Industrial Home, at Knoxville, Tennessee. In a short time that institution will celebrate its tenth anniversary. It is the offspring of a few of the excellent ladies in our city; I believe most all other similar institutions were originated by ladies. These ladies began upon a small scale, two or three associating to go and look for children or individuals; presently they asked the churches to appoint representatives from the congregations and to form a co-operating body. These ladies went about doing good, hunting up children and bringing them to their private houses. This work increased, and they had to hire a large house, paying their expenses as they went without appealing for public aid. Some five years since these ladies were compelled to incorporate themselves as a private corporation, so they could protect themselves from imposition. Every now and then some mother who could no longer support her children would take them there to be cared for, and as soon as they became well fed and clothed, better than they were at

home, they would take them home again to poverty and want. This ceased with the incorporation of the institution. These girls are treated as Mrs. Beveridge desires to have them treated, as if each were the child of the matron. As they grow up some are taken by our city ladies and some by strangers from other parts of the state.

The result is that in Knoxville you will not find girls — unless where these ladies can not reach them — on the streets. They have taken up about one hundred girls, whom they have cared for, raised and sent forth into the world, not only reformed, but ladies. There is lying sick at home now, unless she has passed away, a lady who numbers her wealth by the thousands, the President of that institution, who has on several occasions bestowed the benefits of her purse to this and other charities.

While the distinguished Jew stood here and talked so eloquently, I remembered that while the majority of us are those who bow at that symbol, yet in that institution we have two ladies of his race who occupy the same position with us in our work. They have been honored with office and position; they make no distinction there, and when they meet together they fall down and worship the God of Abraham, of Isaac and of Jacob.

CLASSIFICATION AND TRAINING OF CHILDREN, INNOCENT AND INCORRIGIBLE.

BY HON. W. P. LETCHWORTH, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN, AND PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

When in that land of lofty mountains and beautiful lakes where the traveler loves to linger, as I stood on the bridge a short distance below the city of Geneva, watching the confluence of two rivers diverse in every attribute, I was struck with the effect of their contact. The one, clear, blue, limpid, as it flows gently from the cool depths of Lake Leman, on whose glassy surface are mirrored the snow covered summit of Mont Blanc, the vine clad slopes of Vaud, and the towers of the famous castle of Chillon; the other, originating more

directly in one of those stupendous glaciers that slowly grind their way down century-worn paths, is, as it rushes through the steeply descending valley of Chamouni, a fierce, turbulent torrent, filled with debris and discolored by the disintegrated soil lapped up in its rapid current. Below Geneva, where the waters of these two streams meet, the bold, captious, muddy current of the Arve dashes tumultously into the peaceful Rhone, which at first seemingly shrinks from the contact, and holds itself aloof, keeping its waters a distinct blue line along the right shore. Farther on in the struggle for mastery, the purer element, having vainly endeavored to impart its crystalline clearness to its foul associate, or at least, to keep its own transparent waters untainted, gradually yields to an overpowering, defiling force — the blue stream grows narrower and narrower, until what a little before was so clear that through its crystal waters might be seen every pebble and boulder as readily as are discerned unuttered thoughts in the minds of guileless childhood, becomes uniformly contaminated, and changed into a yellowish, turbid river, and so continues through its long journey to the Mediterranean Sea.

This has seemed to me an apt illustration of the effect of forcing into association in one institution, children who should be trained and reared apart. Comparatively innocent but homeless or wayward children, who come upon the public by reason of misfortune, not from any crime of their own, thrown by a cruel fate in contact with the hardened youth of the reformatories, though at first shrinking from the association, gradually become overpowered by the turbulent evil force that ever domineers, till, finally, like the Rhone after its defilement by the Arve, no trace is left of their original purity.

To dispose of the vast number of children that come upon the public so that the greatest good may be accomplished, is no easy task. To neglect to give the subject needful attention and leave their care and training to be regulated in a careless manner, is criminal. At present the want of a proper classification is urgently felt, yet the principle at least on which it should be based is plain. Nature teaches what that should be.

Everything developed by growth is susceptible to surroundings. This is strikingly true of life at its beginnings, whether in the tender plant or in the childhood of the human being. In family life we see with what care the training of the child is conducted and how carefully the susceptible being is guarded from vicious influences by the home. The more lax the discipline and the

greater the freedom allowed to the child to wander away from the parental roof into evil associations, the more imminent the danger. What is true in the family, is true in institutions, which are, in a sense, but artificial substitutions for it, and which, through the faults and misfortunes of society and the various vicissitudes of life, have become a necessity. If, in conducting an institution, we disregard those principles which have been universally recognized as essential to the highest moral and Christian development in the family, and allow the association of the pure with the corrupt, the gentle with the brutal, we defeat the ends sought, and must certainly suffer for our mistake.

In some of our States the fundamental principles of a proper classification have been entirely ignored. An illustration of this may be seen in one of our large juvenile reformatories in the State of New York, established nearly sixty years ago. To this institution from the outset were committed not only children from the felon class, but also those who were simply unfortunate and homeless. Although an attempt was made at classification by means of two separate departments, nevertheless the inmates came to know each other, realized that they were in the same institution; and the acquaintance thus formed was damaging to the cause of reform, and worked mischievously in after life.

Again, in like manner, in another juvenile reformatory in New York State, beginning its work as far back as thirty-five years, and designed primarily for felons and built like a State prison, with high surrounding walls and massive iron gates, older children were received up to the age of eighteen years. But strange as it may seem, one of the counties in the same judicial district as the reformatory was allowed to send its vagrant class, mainly homeless and unfortunate children, to this institution for hardened youth. While the expedient of brick walls to separate them from the others was at first resorted to, in a little time the importance of classification as to moral grade was lost sight of, and one as to age substituted.

Though permitted by law to receive girls as well as boys, the reception of girls was at first deemed incompatible with the true aims of the institution, and was reported against by the managers. Yet, notwithstanding this, commitments of this ineligible class were made from time to time, until finally a department for girls was erected, to which were admitted not only the most depraved, but even children who were simply homeless

and in danger of falling. It is true the sexes were separated in different buildings and yards, still the insufficiency of classification was evident, and their committal to an institution containing such a heterogeneous mass, who, in various ways, necessarily became more or less acquainted, was most disastrous.

So far from realizing these evils and endeavoring to correct them, as recently as the winter of 1882, a bill was introduced in the Legislature to further enlarge the scope of the institution — compel it to receive from five judicial districts of the state a comparatively innocent class, namely, those guilty of vagrancy, the abandoned, exposed or neglected, those found soliciting alms or charity from door to door, besides a few other classes equally unsuitable for such a place.

Had this become a law, the institution would have formed a receptacle for a strange conglomeration of the innocent and debased, ranging all the way from the poor, neglected, and abandoned child to the felon and the street prostitute; and we should have witnessed, from a territory containing a population of over two millions, boys and girls of the comparatively innocent class, often those who by unnatural parents were thrust upon the streets to beg, forced into corrupting criminal associations and branded with the stigma of criminal commitment.

It is gratifying to state, however, that a proposition involving so grave a mistake, fraught with injustice and wrong, and entailing large subsequent public burdens, did not receive the sanction of the Legislature, and it is hoped the attention of the public has been sufficiently called to it to render the passage of any similar measure an impossibility in the state of New York.

Having exhibited some of the radical defects in our present system of classification, I will now endeavor to outline what seems to me to be the classification most in accordance with reason, humanity, and sound public polity. But first let me premise, that no classification is worthy of serious consideration whose fundamental idea does not recognize that the family is the natural and ultimate place for the homeless child. Therefore, while those who have been exposed to debasing associations and have acquired rough and indecorous habits, may be benefited under wisely directed institutional care and thus rendered more acceptable to good families, and even though the best means of reaching such families is concededly through the benevolent agencies surrounding orphan

asylums, children's aid societies, and similar institutions, the utmost vigilance is necessary to take advantage of the unusual opportunities afforded in this country for placing children in the family relation. Children coming under public care for either support or correction are susceptible of the following fourfold division:

I. The homeless and destitute through death or poverty of parents.
II. Truants from school.
III. Children rebellious of parental control; those guilty of petty offenses and unsuited to orphanages, including vagrants and those in danger of falling.
IV. Boys and girls of hardened natures or of hereditarily vicious propensities, who are guilty of felonious offenses.

The Orphanage is necessary for the kindly care and training of the first class, from which they should as soon as possible, through appropriate agencies, be placed in families.

The School for Truants is found only where the compulsory education law exists. The confinement here, while not incompatible with the tender years of the inmates, should be irksome, uncongenial, and for the briefest possible period, until the child is willing to take again his place in the public school.

The Industrial School for the third class is for those in danger of falling through bad associations or neglect of parents. This school should be pervaded with the atmosphere of a home, strongly aggressive and subjugating, inculcating habits of industry by precept and training, and permeated, as should all child-saving institutions, with high moral and religious teachings.

The Reform School for hardened youth, who need thorough discipline, should afford, in addition to other requisites, facilities for varied industries and school training.

The delinquent child must be regarded and treated as one morally diseased, needing in a certain sense, the same attention that is given by the physician to his sick patient. His condition must be studied and watched at every stage of his progress, and classification effected from time to time, so as to reach the best results. A complete system of classification will, therefore, have facilities for rapid transfer from one institution to another, and will provide that great watchfulness is exercised to determine when transfers are necessary, and that they are promptly effected.

Lastly, for the attainment of the greatest good, the institution needs to be small, to enable the reforming, elevating spirit of the officers to influence the children.

When in England, not long since, I had the pleasure of meeting a remarkable person, a public-spirited magistrate, whose position on the bench gave him unusual opportunity for studying the question of juvenile delinquency. He was a gentleman of culture and refinement, as well as a philanthropist, and is now regarded as an authority on all matters relating to crime and correctional methods. Impressed with the importance of purifying the sources of evil with which he had officially to deal, he, of his own means and on his own estate, established a Reformatory for Boys, upon a basis which he had long deemed the right one, and placed it under the guidance of a young clergyman, who gave his life to the work without other emolument than the satisfaction derived from doing good. This institution has become a model of its kind, and it afforded me many avenues for study while there. I refer to the Hardwicke Court Reformatory, near Gloucester.

In a recent correspondence with its revered founder, T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of Hardwicke Court, he thus alludes to our faulty system of classification:

"The present notion of putting a large number of boys together of all sorts, seems very wild. Of course I cannot say that such a system may not answer with you; though if any man were to propose a similar plan here, we should consider it equivalent to a certificate of lunacy. * * *

In reference to the size of reformatories, he remarks:

"I should say that a reformatory had better be content with fifty or sixty boys. There are few men who can fully enter into the feelings of more boys than this, so as to influence them strongly. I consider my superintendent to be a very good one, but I am sure the seventy or eighty boys that we now detain are more than he can become so intimate with as thoroughly to influence their character.

"In France they have large numbers in one establishment, but there they are divided into groups of twenty: each group has a 'Father,' as he is called, who is responsible for his own boys, and each group lives in a separate detached home, with one superintendent over the whole.

"Our English School, at Red Hill adopted a similar plan, but Sydney Turner, who first established Red Hill, and was afterwards Inspector of Reformatories of all England and Scotland, after a time much preferred the smaller establishments."

It is, I think, now settled by all leading authorities, that reformatories for boys and for girls should be entirely distinct. Mary Carpenter, of England, was an

earnest advocate for the separate system. Kingswood Reformatory, established through her efforts, demonstrated the impossibility of carrying on the work for both sexes satisfactorily in the same institution. This led to her founding the Red Lodge Reformatory, at Bristol, in which she was aided by Lady Byron. My observations corroborate the views of Justice Baker, and many others speaking with the authority of experience, whom I had the pleasure of meeting when abroad. Did time permit, a sketch of some of the institutions I then visited might be profitable; but I will not now further extend this paper by alluding to them. Besides, justice could not be done them in a hurried notice. Suffice it to say, that I visited as an earnest seeker for truth, and for something to aid us here in our work, and brought away with me a mass of material that I hope at some future time to have opportunity of giving to the public.

While the aim should be to make the institution as efficient as possible, by proper classification and wisely directed industrial and other training, it should constantly be kept in mind, that it is a necessity to be resorted to only when unavoidable, the saving of the child outside the institution being the primary thought. In the interest of the child, therefore, to save it from the stigma of a criminal sentence and the family from the attendant disgrace, also to obviate the large expense coming on the public, the effort of institutions should be limited to such cases as cannot be saved by other means.

The State of Massachusetts in 1869 and again in 1870, enacted laws establishing a system of dealing with juvenile offenders, which, in my opinion, was the most beneficial of any then existing. The statutes provide for the appointment of a State Agent, who, in a certain sense, acts as counsel for juvenile offenders.

The law reads:

> "When a complaint before a judge or court, against any boy or girl under seventeen years of age, for any offense is made or pending, a notice in writing thereof shall be given to said Agent, who by himself or assistant shall have an opportunity to investigate the case, attend the trial and protect the interest of or otherwise provide for such child."

These children must have complaints against them heard and determined separately from the ordinary criminal business of the courts. This practically secures a special court for hearing the cases of children apart from those of adults.

Then, again, the judge may, "upon the request of the Agent, authorize the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, to take an indenture or place in charge of any person, or the State Primary School, such child, until he or she attains the age of twenty-one years, or for a less time, and the Board can, if the child proves unmanageable with the person with whom he or she has been placed in charge, transfer him or her to the State Reform or Industrial School."

While making a tour of the New England States some years ago, examining this and other systems, I devoted considerable time to a careful inquiry into its workings and results. I also had an interview with the State Agent, Mr. Gardiner Tufts, and was so interested in his clear exposition of the system, that I was pleased when an opportunity presented itself to invite that gentleman to prepare a paper on the subject, that should reach a large audience. This occurred in 1880, when Chairman of the Committee on Dependent and Delinquent Children of the Seventh National Conference of Charities The paper presented by Mr. Tufts attracted much attention in England, and the Howard Association has, by resolution, expressed the opinion that this system, as outlined by Mr. Tufts, was the best extant.

But I must pass to the second division of my paper —

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The importance of thorough industrial training is recognized in every State of the Union. Such being the case, the method adopted becomes of primary importance, and is, in fact, a matter of discussion and legislation at the present time.

The best solution of this problem, it seems to me, is to be found in a reference to the experience of the oldest workers in the field, who have been, at the same time, experimenters, earnestly and intelligently testing the true value of successive expedients. Those who have no private interest to subserve, no narrowing prejudices to foster, no selfish scheme to promote, but who aim with a single eye to be of public service by devising plans to save the youth of the country from the vicious and criminal life to which they may, either by circumstances or inherited tendency, be predisposed, are best qualified to afford enlightenment on this subject, and it is from such my conclusions have been drawn.

Our country has advanced sufficiently to successfully antagonize old-time conservatism wherever it has been found a hindrance to real progress; and there should be no hesitation, especially in a matter that so vitally con-

cerns the rising generation, in breaking away from the shackles of the past, remanding them to oblivion, and with them, the cruelty and brutality of which they are the accredited parents.

What, then, do we learn from experience?

An examination of various Reformatories of the United States shows that their inmates have hitherto been employed at some form of outdoor or mechanical labor, either under the Contract System, with outside direction of labor, or under what is known as the Free Labor System, where the labor is under the entire direction of the officers of the institution. The ages at which children should be employed has also formed the subject of discussion, some holding to the opinion that young children should not be employed, but simply attend school, devoting to recreation and slight outdoor avocations whatever spare time they might have. But, however opinions may vary as to the age at which children should be placed at some form of industry, all admit its value at a proper age. There are at present, as already stated, but two labor systems, however they may vary in details of working, the Contract and the Free Labor systems.

I recently made an attempt to obtain the views on this subject of all having charge of juvenile reformatories in this country. For this purpose a correspondence was instituted, and replies received embodying the experience of nearly every representative officer in charge of this work in the United States. The result of this inquiry is as follows:

In addition to New York, the Contract System, with outside control of labor, is upheld in Illinois, Missouri, Maryland, and was, till last winter, in Pennsylvania.

The Free Labor system is maintained in Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Ohio, Rhode Island, Vermont, Wisconsin, and now in Pennsylvania.

The following industries are carried on under the Contract System:

Shoemaking.
Wicker work.
Cane seating.
Brush-making.
Clothes-making.
Hosiery-making.
Carpet-bag making and harness stitching.

The free Labor System shows a greater variety, as follows:

Shoemaking.
Cane-seating chairs.
Chair-making.
Brush-making.
Dress-making.
Tailoring.
Sewing-machine work.
Box-making.
Hat-making.
Knitting (by hand).
Manufacture of tinware.
Wood-work.
Printing.
Seed-growing.
Flower culture.
Shirt-making.
Brick-making.
Hosiery-making.
Blacksmithing.
Crocheting.
Fancy work.
Stock raising.

Besides, it must be remembered, that, under the Free Labor System, a full trade is frequently, if not generally, taught, and the boys become expert workmen in their particular line; while under the Contract System no such opportunity is afforded, and but one operation or process inculcated.

While seeking information on this subject of industrial training when abroad, I found that in England, Scotland, and Ireland, the following industries were systematically taught: Farming, vegetable gardening and flower culture, match-box making, tailoring, shoemaking, carpentering, baking, engineering, gas-fitting, cabinet-making, stock raising, wheelwright-work, saddle and harness making, stone cutting, wood carving, baking, etc.

On the Continent, I was particularly struck with the thoroughness of the instruction and the skill attained by the pupils in every department. In summer, the principal occupations are farming and gardening, and such other work as keeps the children out of doors and tends to make them strong and robust, while the inclement weather and winter months are selected for such industrial and intellectual education as may be afforded

indoors. In this way greater variety of occupation is secured, greater skill attained, with health, contentment, and the best results. At the *Rauhe Haus*, near Hamburg, established by Immanuel Wichern, of revered memory, the following trades were being carried on: Blacksmithing, carpentering, tailoring, shoemaking, printing, wagon-making, gardening, etc. At the Netherlands Mettray, farming, gardening and dairying on an extensive scale, blacksmithing, carpentering, tailoring, shoemaking, tinsmithing and painting. At the French Mettray, near Tours, agriculture on an extensive scale, blacksmithing, cart and wagon making, painting, tailoring, shoemaking, etc. The contract system of labor is peculiar to America. I have not found that it exists in any juvenile reformatory either on the Continent or in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The objections to it are obvious, and mainly the following:

It subordinates the reformation and improvement of the child to the interest of the contractor; introduces a foreign element into the institution in the person of the contractor's employés, who have no sympathy with the cause of reform, but, on the contrary, exercise a vicious influence.

It also interferes with opportunities for intellectual instruction and recreation; imposes long hours of work, and makes the boy believe that he is part of a scheme for making money for the institution. He works grudgingly, and is encouraged to steal and misrepresent his labor in order to satisfy demands upon him.

The system is at fault as an industrial education, inasmuch as by its plan of teaching but one process in the operation, the boy does not learn a complete trade.

It is strictly a system adapted to adult convicts in a penal institution, and wholly unsuited to a reformatory for children, where a home atmosphere should prevail, and where, by association with disinterested teachers, self-respect and love for honorable industry are inculcated.

An attempt has been made to defend it on the ground of economy, but this has failed; for, with the exception of the Baltimore Reform School, under the Xavierian Brothers, the *per capita* cost is found to be lowest in an institution under the Free Labor System.

The exception even does not afford a fair basis of comparison; for the institution, being under the control of a religious brotherhood, that give their services almost gratuitously, the heavy item for salaries is not included. It therefore holds good that the Free Labor System, which

exhibits its most perfect financial results in New Jersey, stands at the head, even from a financial point of view, though moral considerations ought to be of more importance than isolated pecuniary figures.

There is an aspect of this question which is apt to be overlooked. It is this: The Contract System tends to induce the committal to and retention in these reformatories, of a class of children who ought never to have been sent there, and who might advantageously be disposed of by indenturing at trades and useful occupations, without the brand of criminal commitment.

This economic result of doing right finds a ready illustration in England, where it was found that the expense of reformatories was increased by retaining in them a class of children unsuited to such a place, and who could be restored to the family with slight correctional treatment. On this point Mr. Justice Baker remarks, that reformatories should be used only for serious cases, and not filled with those who, from childish thoughtlessness, may have committed some petty offense.

Although it is time that I should close, I desire to dwell for a moment upon the encouraging aspects of this important subject.

In my efforts to help on the work of reforming children, it has been gratifying to find that there is something in the public heart, which, when appealed to properly, responds bravely, and always in the right. My work in life, so far from being discouraging has been quite hopeful; and the more extended my intercourse with my fellow men, the higher rises my estimate of the nobility of the human character. However little we may see of the better part of men's nature, there is, behind what seems to us cold and calculating, a warm and generous impulse.

Shortly after entering upon my work as State Commissioner of Charities in New York, more than a decade since, I gave my attention to the pitiable condition of the children in the poorhouses and almshouses of New York State, resolving that if God would spare my life, I would not rest until those children were removed from that poisoned moral atmosphere. My hopes were happily realized by the passage of a law, in 1875, with which you are doubtless familiar.

I remember among the initiatory steps of that difficult undertaking, when attempting to secure the removal of a large number of children from one of the city almshouses, it became necessary to appeal to the governing body of the county—the Board of Supervisors. It seemed

at one time as though I had awakened but little sympathy. Still I persevered. Finally, it reached a point when it seemed, that, unless the presiding officer of the Board could be influenced, the case was lost. But he appeared like a cold-hearted, unfeeling man, in whose face I could not trace the least line of sympathy for this movement on behalf of these unfortunate little ones. It was almost a hopeless task, yet I finished my earnest plea before the Board. Judge of my surprise after leaving the hall and coming back later, to find that this apparently cold-hearted, stubborn man had left the chair, and, on the floor of the house, with his hair disordered, his face purple with the warmth of his feelings, was denouncing in unmeasured terms the system which I had all along supposed he was defending. It is needless to add, that this unexpected demonstration rendered the triumph complete.

The great interest manifested in this widely extended field, by those whose lives have been devoted to this humanitarian work, inspires fresh confidence that the evils of defective classification and wrongly directed industries here enumerated as among the faults of our system will eventually be set aside.

With the growing intelligence of statesmen, and the diffusion of light through the pervading influence of the Press, we feel buoyed up and inspired with the hope that these great wrongs inflicted upon helpless children, partially through ignorance, partially through the hyper-conservatism of the age, which, happily, is fast passing away, will be remedied, and the spirit of the Divine Master will prevail, who pleads, "SUFFER LITTLE CHILDREN, AND FORBID THEM NOT, TO COME UNTO ME; FOR OF SUCH IS THE KINGDOM OF HEAVEN."

A communication was presented from C. F. Coffin, of Indiana. (See appendix.)

The Conference then took a recess until afternoon.

NINTH SESSION.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, September 27, 1883.

The conference met at 3 P. M. in the chapel of the Louisville House of Refuge, with the officers and inmates of that institution.

The conference was welcomed to the institution by ex-Governor L. P. Blackburn, and the children were addressed by the following gentlemen:

Hon. FRED. H. WINES, of Illinois, President of the Conference.

J. H. MILLS, of North Carolina, Superintendent of the Masonic Orphan Asylum.

C. H. BOND, of Connecticut, Superintendent of the Industrial School for Girls.

Gen. JOHN EATON, U. S. Commissioner of Education.

F. B. SANBORN, of Massachusetts, a former President of the Conference.

FREDERICK COLLINS, one of the Managers of the Philadelphia House of Refuge.

Judge JOHN C. FERRIS, of Tennessee.

Hon. ANDREW E. ELMORE, President of the previous Conference.

The conference was then provided with a lunch in the dining hall of the institution and took a recess until evening.

TENTH SESSION.

THURSDAY EVENING, September 27, 1883.

The Conference met in the chapel of the Louisville House of Refuge.

MR. FULTON, of New York: The institution which I represent was mentioned in one of the papers read before the Conference to-day. The paper was that of the Chairman of the Committee on Preventive Work Among Children. I do not desire to take up much of your time, but as this institution was singled out as a mark, it seems to me that I should be permitted to tell the conference what the institution is. It was represented in that paper that it was built as a prison. This is partly true and partly not true. The House of Refuge, at Rochester, was built about thirty-five years ago. It was built with dormitories, lighted by narrow windows, with bars over the windows. The window was very narrow, and required but a single bar and two cross-bars. The doors were of cast-iron and opened, so as to allow a free passage of air. The buildings we have erected since are different, but that building still stands there. It cost a good deal of money and we propose to use it for the present. Some eight years ago we erected an additional building, as was stated in the paper, for the reception of girls under sixteen years of age. That building consists of a large central building and wings. The central building contains the office, parlor, kitchen, and rooms for the ladies and the laundry. The wings run north and south; each of them contains fifty rooms, 7 by 15, with a twelve foot ceiling. In each room there is a nice, comfortable bed with a sea-grass mattress on it. Our dining-rooms, work-rooms and school-rooms are equal to the same rooms in any institution in any city.

These wings run each way from the building and are occupied by girls of the first division and girls of the second division. They have separate rooms, and only come together in chapel. In the rear of these buildings, about 250 feet from them, there is a high fence. Over this there is another building for small girls. This building is divided in the same way. In the center of the building is the kitchen, sitting-room, etc. The wings are nice, airy recreation rooms, and there are bath-rooms, wash-rooms and a dining room. On the next floor there is a large work-room and a school-room with single desks. There is a room above on the third floor, a large dormitory, with fifty beds for girls and one bed for a lady. These beds have wire mattrasses, with tick mattresses over them, making a nice bed. We have two large play-grounds with play-houses, giving them ample opportunity for play. They have all the freedom that girls in any institution I know of have.

MR. GILES: If the gentleman will excuse me, I do not see the purpose of this detailed statement. I do not see that it is of interest to the Conference. It does not interest me.

MR. FULTON: I was giving this to answer a direct criticism made on that institution this morning.

DR. MORRIS: I am anxious to know something about the trades taught in Houses of Refuge. Mr. Fulton, please let us know what trades are taught?

MR. FULTON: Mostly manufacturing shoes and clothing. They work in teams; one boy does a certain part of the work and another another. The shoes are made by machinery.

MR. FAY, of New York: Mr. Jones, the Superintendent of the House of Refuge on Randall's Island, New York City, has been here until this evening, but he was called away this afternoon, and there is no one here to represent that Institution but myself. I would be very glad

to describe the House and its management, but I do not feel that it is necessary at this time. I find the subject of the reformation of Juvenile Delinquents intensely interesting. I have only been upon the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge for about two years, and I had no idea, when undertaking the work, that I should find it so engrossing.

Our institution is one of the first if not the very first chartered Reformatory in the world. It certainly is the pioneer institution in this country. It was organized in 1824 by the best men in our state at that time. The Board of Managers from that time to this have been composed of men of the very highest intelligence and noblest character, and of the greatest influence in the community. Professional and scientific men, judges of our courts, bankers, merchants and lawyers, chosen from the best representatives of society have had charge of the interests of the institution, and have shown wonderful fidelity, skill and wisdom in its management.

I have in my view now the case of one of my fellows upon the School Committee of the House, who has never failed in twenty-six years to visit the institution and go through the schools every Friday in the year, except when detained at home by sickness. Our institution has inherited from its founders some things which may seem to many of those who are now present to be an incubus, almost a detriment to the cause in which we are all engaged. Among these I may mention we have inherited the congregate system, the cell system, and the contract labor system. We have a high wall about our premises. It seems to be the general sentiment that the contract system is wrong. Our managers are fully aware of all its defects — probably no system is perfect. We have sent our Superintendent to the conference to try and gather from its discussions something which will help us to improve our institution.

But before we venture upon a change we must have a substitute for what we are now using. We must keep our boys out of idleness. If the labor is demoralized, disorders will arise.

There is no farm work or house work that will employ a substantial number of our boys. We have 650 of them in the house now. We have an establishment in the city of New York which has cost the State $500,000. It was built in 1854. We cannot remove into the country, or make changes in our methods without calling upon the State for more money than we think we ought to ask for. The contract system of labor has been satisfactory to us. It has worked reasonably well. When the Legislature of the State a year or two ago passed an act abolishing contract labor, Governor Cornell vetoed the bill.

He was a very intelligent man and took a great interest in our work. His veto message is our platform on this subject.

He says that the system has worked well — that there is nothing in it, as practised with us, which is detrimental to the health of the children employed, neither is there any truth in the allegation that the contractors have an improper influence upon or control of the children. With our Institution there is absolutely no truth in this last allegation.

The Overseers in the shops are our own appointees and employes, and the contractors have to accept them. The amount of money the children earn is very substantial; they earned over $40,000 last year, but that has never been a main object with us.

We have a generous appropriation from the State — besides other sources of revenue. Among others we have an allowance from the public school money of the state. Our schools are a part of the Common School system and are under the Superintendence of the City

Public School Superintendent. They are my particular interest in the institution as I am a member of the School Committee — and I must be allowed to claim for them uncommon excellence — owing to the uncommon excellence of our teachers one and all.

We are an old Institution — compared with the modern establishment we are now visiting, we seem antiquated. The new broom it is said sweeps clean — but in our case I want to maintain also that a vast deal of useful work may nevertheless be done with an old broom in skillful hands.

Mr. Cooley, of Ohio: There is one thought that impresses itself upon my mind. We find that in most of these institutions there has been a marked improvement in their management, in regard to feeding and clothing and warming the children who are placed in them, during the time they remain in them. They are taught to read and write, and they go to church on Sunday and all that. But when I look on these institutions and see the progress which marks the civilization of the nineteenth century, I am impressed with the thought, who will take these boys and girls when they leave the walls of the institution? I have been in this work all my life, and I think the turning-point of the child's life is when he leaves our institution, and goes out to do battle with the world for a living. Just where I live, there is a ridge, on which there is a house, and the water that falls on that side goes north to the sea, through the St. Lawrence river, but the water that falls on this side comes south, through the Ohio river, to warmth and beauty. Now, who will take these little children and turn their feet into paths of warmth and sunshine? We ought to pay more attention to placing our boys and girls.

I had a friend once, who came to me and said: "There is a young man in the penitentiary, and I wish you would see if you can't get him out." I said I would try,

and I did, but failed. He came to me again and said: "His mother is pining away and she will die. Can't you get him out?" I went to the Judge and to the officers who knew the case, and then went to the Governor of the State, and succeeded in getting a pardon. With that paper in my hand I hastened to the penitentiary. It was about time to close its doors, but with that paper I got out the youth. He came out of the prison with a suit of clothes and five dollars in money. He immediately asked me what he could do. A gentleman advised him to go west and under a new name start anew in life. We stayed at the hotel that night, together, and in the morning took the first train for his old home. I told him to start where he lost his good name. He did, and to-day that young man is respected and beloved, and his mother still lives. It is when they come out of the institutions that they are either saved or lost.

Mr. Collins, of Pennsylvania: After referring to the philanthropic and valuable services of the venerable James J. Barclay, President of the Board of Managers of the House of Refuge of Philadelphia, who has devoted his time and talents for fifty-eight years to the interests of that Institution, said: "I am glad to avail myself of this opportunity to present to the Conference some thoughts on the subject of the importance of a thorough supervision of children, who, having been under restraint in Reformatory Institutions, have been discharged from them. This subject was referred to by the Hon. Mr. Letchworth, in his able and excellent paper read to the Conference this morning, and the success which has attended a bureau established for this purpose by the state of Massachusetts. The same system was adopted by the Managers of the House of Refuge of Philadelphia about eight years ago, though somewhat different in form, which has been productive of the most gratifying and successful results. It was manifest to

them that their wards committed to their gaurdianship during their minority, should receive their continued care and protection after their discharge from the House. A department was organized for the supervision of the children indentured to masters for a term of years, or given up to parents and friends of reputable character. An officer was appointed, styled a "visiting agent," whose time was to be exclusively devoted to visit discharged children, frequently to correspond with them, acquaint himself with the antecedents and character of those who by their acquired rank were eligible for discharge, by a personal intercourse, in order to determine their fitness for occupations in which they might be employed, and to investigate the character, homes and surroundings of parents who applied for the custody of their children, to daily enter in a book of record visits made by him, letters sent and received, and such notes as he deemed necessary for an intelligent knowledge of those under his especial care. All children when discharged from the House are placed on a 'parole of honor' for six months, and required on the first of each to write to the Superintendent, stating their condition of health, attendance on day or Sabbath school, kind of employment, if kindly treated by those having the care of them; and if the reports are satisfactory, and confirmed by their friends, the parole terminates. But should they relapse during this time into evil or vicious ways, or be improperly treated, they are restored to the discipline of the Home without process of law, except the approval of the Visiting Judge of the Courts of Common Pleas. It is the duty of the Visiting Agent to visit our children out of the Institution twice in each year, and oftener in especial cases if necessary, and to be in frequent correspondence with them; thus by a constant oversight and intercourse a kindly relation is maintained between the agent and the children, encouraging them in well doing

and stimulating them to habits of honesty, diligence, virtue, and the observance of their religious duties, and they with confidence and respect for him, acquaint him with their troubles or discontent whether real or imaginary, and accept his advice and relief. One visiting agent reports that for the past year, he has made 1375 visits to the children, and written to them over 600 letters. I regret the time does not permit me to speak more in detail of the operations of our work in this department. It must be apparent to you, that to render it thoroughly efficient, depends in a large degree on the fidelity and qualifications of the officer, who should be of irreproachable character, of good judgment and discretion, and capable of winning the love and confidence of the children, appreciating that those under his care are passing through a perilous period of their youth, by exposure to temptation and liability to ill-treatment. We have been eminently fortunate in the selection of our Visiting Agent, who from his records and intimate knowledge of the children, shows that for the past three years eighty-five per cent. are doing well. The services of such an officer cannot be secured except by a liberal compensation to fulfill his delicate and arduous duties. I earnestly commend this important subject to the consideration of all those who participate in the management of Reformatory Institutions for wayward and dependant children, and who recognize the great responsibility they have assumed in developing their future lives. I feel assured that by the adoption of this system their experiences will correspond with ours, and will regard it of value and importance scarcely less than their education and training of their wards, whilst under the immediate restraint of their Institutions.

Mr. Watson, of Pennsylvania: The great and important work of caring for the unfortunate, destitute and criminal classes in all civilized communities, is now

claiming the attention of the best minds. As civilization advances, and the thoughts of men and women, impelled by Christianity and benevolence, are directed to the alleviation of their suffering fellow creatures, and for the best and most effective means of accomplishing good with the large appropriations made by states, cities and individuals for the support of Charitable, Reformatory and Penal Institutions, and that those means should be so directed as to accomplish most good, without in any way adding to the volume of pauperism and crime with which all communities are afflicted.

Money and labor should only be expended upon those whose infirmities prevent self-support, or those who are too young to help themselves; every dollar given, and every door opened to a man or woman who is able to support himself is misdirected and adds to the vast mass of pauperism and crime which we all wish to prevent.

The Charity Organizations now operating in many of our northern cities are doing very much to help the truly needy and expose the indolent and dishonest; suffering from poverty and sickness is relieved at a minimum expense, and the really meritorious are lifted up to a condition to enable them to help themselves and those dependent upon them, without the demoralization attendant upon all promiscuous alms giving.

Though humanity may lead (and often properly), the benevolent to help the adult poor and suffering, and to make efforts for the reformation of criminal men and women, and thus alleviate distress, and sometimes accomplish reformation; of the mass of men and women now confined in our prisons and reformatories, comparatively few are amenable to any efforts of reformation. Crime has mostly done its perfect work, self-esteem is gone and the sense of their own degradation dominates the mind and heart, and usually leaves little to be

wrought upon by efforts made for amendment; temporary effects are sometimes produced, but a return to old associations and temptations usually leads back to crime.

With children it is different, and if the present generation of adult paupers and criminals are in the main lost, their children may be saved, and if our efforts are directed to that end with the means at our command, much can be done to protect the next generation from crime and suffering.

The care of children of the hopelessly poor, and of parents destitute of honor or character, is one of the most important duties devolving upon philanthrophists, and it must be clear to every intelligent mind that the surest way to save them is to remove them from the influence of their parents and place them under the care of proper instructors, and surround them with influences which will brighten their lives and fit them for something better than the life awaiting them in their former condition.

In some of the states provision is made for this, but unfortunately in most of them the children of paupers, and the hopelessly degraded, are allowed to live with their parents in the County Poor Houses, or in their wretched abodes, subject to all of the evils surrounding such a life. It is of course always desirable for a child to be guided by its parents if they are reasonably fit for that natural duty, but if they are not, the public weal demands that other provision be made for their care and proper instruction in learning and morals and labor. We all agree that it is necessary to provide at the public expense, prisons for the convicted criminal, hospitals for the sick, insane and idiotic poor, and reformatory institutions for those who cannot be otherwise controlled. We all agree, also, that it is necessary to make provision for the education of all classes at the public expense.

Is it not clear, then, that it is wiser to provide means of salvation for children, whose surrounding influences must inevitably lead them into a course of life which will be a curse to themselves, and an expense and charge upon the community. It is much cheaper to save and educate the children, than to allow them to grow up and become a blight upon the community, filling our prisons with criminals, and our homes with danger, and our hearts with sorrow.

I have spoken thus far in a general way for the children of all classes needing help other than from their natural protectors, and I will now speak more particularly of those who are delinquent, and incorrigible, and are committed by due course of law to the reformatory institutions which are provided for them in many of the states.

Having had long experience in the work required for conducting such institutions, and having examined many such both in this country and Europe, I feel that I am measurably qualified to speak of the important interests involved in their conduct and management. In the states of Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, Michigan, Kentucky, and probably some others of which I have no record, there are Houses of Refuge and Reform Schools to which children up to sixteen years of age are committed by the courts and magistrates for vicious and incorrigible conduct and petty crimes, and I wish to call the attention of this large and intelligent assemblage to the importance of the policy which should be adopted in the treatment of the large numbers of children thus thrown under the care of those institutions. That most of them can be saved, and reared into fairly respectable citizens, there is no doubt; but allowed to run wild without such care they would inevitably drift into the

prisons and become a charge upon the community. Our experience in the Philadelphia House of Refuge in which I, with others have been successfully engaged for many years, in saving delinquent children, has proven to us conclusively, that out of every one hundred children sent to that institution by the courts of eastern Pennsylvania and magistrates of the city of Philadelphia, from eighty to ninety of them can and are being educated in learning that will fit them for business, and instructed in some useful industry, which will enable them to fight the battle of life as successfully as that number of children would be, taken from an ordinary course of life, under family influence.

There are in that Institution now nearly 700 children, about one-fourth of whom are girls, who are generally under 16 years of age, though there are some, who have been longer in the Institution, over that; nearly all of them were when committed, ignorant and degraded, and, if left in their normal condition but a few years, most of them would have gone to ruin; but under our methods, I believe at least 85 per cent. can be physically, morally and intellectually changed, and made reasonably good citizens.

I wish, therefore, to give some idea of the course of treatment adopted in that Institution which has produced the results I have spoken of, and which, if understood and practiced elsewhere, would accomplish the same results.

The buildings of the Refuge are constructed in the most complete and substantial manner covering three blocks of ground, affording ample room for every necessary purpose; the apartments are large, high, and well ventilated and perfectly drained, and thoroughly heated with steam, large yards are provided for every division of the children for recreation and exercise. The front yards facing the streets are beautifully ornamented with

flowers and grass, which gives them an attractive appearance to the children when they enter, and helps to remove from their minds the terror of their situation. Pleasant surroundings have a tendency to produce feelings of comfort and peace of mind, so important to the healthy life of a child.

The children when they are received and their histories known and recorded, are classified, and placed in the division which accords with their circumstances: each division is guarded and protected by a Prefect, who is chosen for the purpose with a care that he is fitted for the work. There are fifteen schools, held three hours every week day, except Saturday, taught in divisions of from forty to fifty, by lady teachers, selected with the greatest care from the graduates of the normal school, who must have certificates of proficiency as teachers from the School of Practice or elsewhere, both as regards intelligence, discipline and force of character. All of the school-rooms are large, well lighted and ventilated, and supplied with every appliance used in the modern school room. Regular periods of examination and promotion, and granting of rewards are established, and the schools are equal to those of the same class of the Public Schools of the city.

Regular hours of labor are also established in shops of the most careful construction, under proper instructors, and the employments are suited to the age and ability of the child, and few of the children leave the House without a fair knowledge of some useful employment.

Well ventilated and separate sleeping rooms, with open doors, are provided for all of the larger children, and open dormitories for the smaller, and great care is taken to guard them in their sleeping hours.

The food is of the best description and in sufficient quantity, the diet being carefully provided under the

advice of physicians, two of whom are regularly employed, one visiting the house almost daily.

Cleanliness is particularly required in every department; suitable washing and bathing places are provided and hours appointed for that important particular.

The clothing is carefully chosen for work, school and Sunday attire, warm in winter and cool in summer. Shoes are always worn, and a new citizen's suit is furnished to all when they leave the institution.

Chapel service is held regularly every Sunday, and Sunday School in the morning, taught by ladies and gentlemen from the different churches of the city, who volunteer for the service. Great care is taken to instruct the children in sacred music. Teachers are provided for that purpose, and they have regular practice in concert every week, and their hymnal songs are excellently given on all necessary occasions.

A brass band of thirty pieces is organized, and the boys are quite proficient in their performance upon them. The boys and girls visit the Park in the summer season in companies of from fifty to one hundred and they take their enjoyment in perfect safety. In the winter season regular entertainments are given every week in the chapel to the assembled children and friends, by ladies and gentlemen, members of the church choirs and others, who volunteer for the service; and the best music and recitations, which are often participated in by the children themselves, and are greatly enjoyed. Pictorial representations and lectures are also frequently given by the managers and others interested in the children. There are libraries in all of the departments, containing over three thousand volumes suitable for children, who use them constantly and with great advantage.

All of the clothing and shoes used in the Institution are made by the boys. All of the laundry work, and the under-clothing and dresses are made by the girls,

under competent instructors, and they are thus fitted for house work of all kinds during their residence of from twenty-four to thirty months in the House.

Thus when the time comes for children to be discharged they are fitted for a safe place in the country, on a farm, or in shops of various kinds for a trade, or as servants in a safe home, which every care is taken to provide for them, under proper indenture, which requires a moderate payment of money by the master to the Treasurer of the House per annum, which is placed in a saving fund, drawing interest until they are free, when it is paid to them.

Those children who are given up to their parents, of course have not that advantage, and as few as possible are thus disposed of, for it is found often not best for them to go back to their old channels of life. In their homes, everywhere, the Visiting Agent of the House follows all the children twice a year, looking closely into their conditions, giving advice and protection, and if they are not happy, or satisfied, or properly treated, they are brought back to the House, and other places found for them.

From the description I have imperfectly given of an existing institution, you can understand how the very large proportion of children are saved who would otherwise be lost to society or exist as a pest. It has been perfectly demonstrated that if children of whatever class are properly treated and made to feel from the start that the home they have come to is not a place of punishment, is not degrading to them, every child of a fair intelligence has perception enough to understand that *its* good alone is sought for, by the kind officers who control him, the firm and judicious teachers who instruct him and by the pleasant and well appointed and guarded home he is placed in; regular habits of life, though enforced, become pleasant to him,

and in a short time his youthful mind awakens to the difference between the past and present, and his improvement is rapid and certain. A child in a reformatory must be treated as children are treated elsewhere, it must be allowed the usual privileges of a child, participate in like sports, and like recreations. See that those having charge of him are endeavoring to make his life happy and it is rarely the case that he does not yield, and gradually give up his bad for better ways. It generally follows that improvement is sure after their confidence has been secured and their thoughts properly directed. Some are hereditarily bad, born with the vicious qualities of their parents inherent in their nature, and for such there is little hope, and with such any treatment must fail; they are the sad victims resulting from the persistent violations of the immutable laws of God, and there is little hope for them. My effort has been, first, to show what may and should be done in all thickly settled communities to save and educate children of indigent or pauper parents, and next, what *is* being done for children who are incorrigible, and have fallen into vicious ways, by the congregate system of reformatory work.

The Institution of which I have spoken, and in which more than a score of gentlemen constantly labor, and are greatly interested, is situated in a thickly populated part of a great city of nearly a million of people; but it would be better if it were in the adjacent country, where the children could be employed in agriculture or horticulture, and distributed in groups or families, and where ample space could be allotted for every purpose; where better classification could be made, and a better sanitary condition preserved; experience in other places has proven that in the country, surrounded by the beauties of nature, away from the baleful influences of city life, children more easily forget their past delinquencies, and

more readily yield to the discipline required for their reformation. A child naturally loves the country, and its more quiet life is safer for those who are prone to go astray, and our experience, as that of others, is that places secured on farms for boys and girls have better results than elsewhere.

We feel that our efforts are saving hundreds of children every year from dishonest lives. And this may be done in every populous community in this broad land, by benevolently disposed persons exerting themseves publicly and privately, for the establishment of properly governed institutions having for their object the preservation of unfortunate and unprotected children.

We cannot help feeling that during the last thirty years great changes have taken place in the minds of thoughtful people in regard to the condition of the poor, destitute and delinquent classes, in every civilized community. Both in this country and Europe the pathetic stories of Dickens first awakened thought, and it was felt that Dotheboys Hall was not a myth, nor poor little Oliver's cry for more without a parallel in many self-styled *homes* for the poor. Reform Schools were then scarcely known, not known at all as they are to-day, and Houses of Refuge were only juvenile prisons, where boys and girls were confined for a time, for punishment for crimes which the parents and guardians were mostly responsible for. Now, we see the noble institution of which I have been speaking, and the new Reform School at Morganza, in Pennsylvania, and the great Reform Schools at Elmira, and Rochester, in New York, and Lancaster, in Ohio, Westborough, in Massachusetts, and Jamesburgh, in New Jersey, and Houses of Refuge in most of the states, all working upon the improved basis, which recognizes the truth that children who have gone astray can and ought to be reclaimed and educated and made good citizens.

In England, France, Germany and Italy the same change in public opinion has taken place, and the great Institutions at Feltham, near London, in England, and Mettray, near Tours, in France, St. Michele, and Albergio dei Poveri, in Rome, and Genoa, in Italy, and others in several of the kingdoms of Europe, attest the concern which is felt all over the civilized world for the preservation of unfortunate children.

I trust and hope that every state in our Republic will ere long be awakened to the necessity of protecting and educating the children of the unfortunate classes of which I have spoken.

MR. MATTHEWS: In my mind there is a great difference between reformatory work and preventive work. This seems to me to be on preventive work.

MR. OLIVER, of Ohio: In reference to the Cincinnati House of Refuge. In the last two years we have had three hundred and forty-five children. We cannot help ourselves. The city of Cincinnati has no other place to send them, and it is better for us to take them than to allow them to roam the streets. We are under the contract system, but we control everything ourselves. We get fifteen cents a day for the labor of the children seven hours a day. We get ninety cents a week, but must feed them. In addition to the ninety cents, the children get extra from the contractor sometimes, and this is placed to their credit, to be given to them when they come out. We have a system of visiting after the children leave the institution. About two years ago the legislature passed a law giving us this power. We have an officer who visits them, and the children are required to visit us once a month.

MR. GARRETT, of Pennsylvania: I am apprehensive that this conference will go on record in a way not intended on the contract system. I would like to know if this Conference is against the contract system in the abstract ?

THE CHAIRMAN: I am not aware that the Conference has expressed its opinion in the shape of any resolution or declaration. It is a question open for discussion. I will ask whether it is understood to be the sense of this Conference that contract labor is objectionable under all circumstances?

DR. WALK, of Pennsylvania: I think that there is a divided sentiment on that question. There are good and bad features in it. It is not in all respects objectionable, but I think that there is a better system now in use.

The Conference then took a recess till morning.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

FRIDAY MORNING, September 28, 1883.

The conference was opened with prayer by Bishop G. D. Gillespie.

O, Thou who didst come to save the dying and heal the sick, and to save that which was lost, and who said it was more blessed to give than to receive, bless us who are trying to walk in the footsteps of Thy Holy life, and save us from all dissensions in our work. May we be willing to follow those who have had experience in these matters and have given thought to them, and grant that we may achieve a great victory in the cause of right, justice and mercy. Let us think that we are acting under the direction of Almighty God in the great cause in which we are engaged. We ask Thy mercy, Lord, upon those who are now in prison, who, though their limbs may not be bound with shackles of iron, are yet more sadly bound. Look with grace upon those who are in our pauper-houses and look Thou upon the children, who are our especial care. May they grow in grace and in the blessed knowledge of our Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ. Be with us, Lord, on this the last day of our work here, and grant that when we leave here we may go to our homes with hearts warm towards all our fellow-workers. Bless the city and State which we are leaving, and grant that our work may be a great benefit to this commonwealth. O Lord, be with us and bless us, through Jesus Christ, our Lord and Saviour. Amen.

DR. JOHN MORRIS, of Maryland: I desire to supplement the remarks already made concerning our prison work, by adding something in regard to our labors in the direction of the children. We have now in Maryland

an institution for the care and protection of children, that is an institution for feeble-minded children; and with the blessing of God, we hope next winter to get the legislature to incorporate such institution and give us an appropriation for it. This Institution, in the two years that it has been established, has done incalculable good. Street beggary has been abolished through its labors. During the past year we have established a reformatory for colored girls. This was a most needed institution in our State.

I have no knowledge of prison work, except as a trustee of a reformatory for about four or five years. Yesterday I listened to every word that was said in the discussion, because it was so imporant to me as a trustee of such an institution. I did not hear one word upon the trades that were taught in such institutions except by one gentleman. I regretted this very much, because when I was appointed trustee, the first thing that struck me was concerning the proper trades to be taught so that they could earn a living. Making shoes and clothing by machinery is no trade. We urged upon the managers the establishment of some trade by which the boys could make a living when they came to leave the institution, and we finally fixed upon a foundry, which has now gone into operation. We have a few boys that we are teaching printing, but, of course, it would not be a wise thing to teach four or five hundred boys to be printers.

A DELEGATE: Have you no ticket-of-leave system?

DR. MORRIS: We have that power. They go out under leave and have to report to the institution.

DR. BRYCE, of Alabama: Our state has no organized charities. I am not an official delegate appointed by the Governor of my state, but as nothing has been said with reference to Alabama, perhaps it would be well for me to make a short statement in reference to what insti-

tutions the state has. She has one large hospital for the insane, of which I am the superintendent, and she has an institution for the deaf, dumb and blind. These are the only two institutions supported by the state. There are various county institutions supported by the various counties. We have no Board of Charities, because we never felt the need of such a thing. I suppose when Alabama becomes as thickly populated as some of your northern states we will respond to the demands of the times. Our insane are increasing very rapidly, beyond our power to accomodate them, and we will soon have to adopt some different system, and I hope that Alabama will come to the front and put herself in line with the most progressive states of the Union.

The report for the state of Vermont was then presented as follows:

REPORT OF VERMONT.

BY W. G. FAIRBANK.

The legislature of the state of Vermont in November, 1865, passed an Act establishing an Institution for the discipline, correction and reformation of juvenile offenders, to be called the Vermont Reform School, to which there should be committed for discipline, correction and instruction such persons, male or female, under the age of *eighteen* years as should be found guilty of any crime or offense against the laws of the State, and the court in its discretion, had power to sentence the respondent to the Vermont Reform School. Power was not only given to the authorities of the school at all times, in their discretion, to apprentice such persons, but it was made their duty so to do whenever suitable opportunities should offer, and in their judgment said minors were suitable persons to be apprenticed.

Power was also given the authorities of the school, with the approval of the Governor, to discharge any minor as reformed whenever they should become satisfied that his longer detention in the school would be to the disadvantage or injury of said minor. It was also provided that, whenever any male minor so committed to the school should be found incorrigible or the authorities should deem his continuance in the school injurious to its management or discipline they could

certify the same upon the Mittimus by which he was held, and the Mittimus, with such certificate, returned to the county court, next to be held in the county where he was convicted or sentenced, when such court *could* in its discretion either remit him to the *school* for further and more severe discipline or to the county jail, or State Prison to be there imprisoned for the remainder of the *term*, for which he was sentenced.

The following year (1866) the law was changed, so that no persons but boys under the age of 16 years could be sentenced to the school or received therein. It was also provided at this time, that any boy convicted of any crime or offense, not punishable by death, under the laws of the state, either by Justice of the Peace or by County Court, the court in either case could sentence such boy to the school, for any period, not less than six months, nor beyond the age of majority. It was also enacted, that in each warrant of commitment there should be inserted an *alternative sentence*, to be made use of in case the boy should not in all respects conform to all the rules and requirements of the school to the satisfaction of the superintendent and trustees. To make use of such *alternative sentence* it was necessary that the superintendent, with the consent of a majority of the trustees, should indorse the fact on the back of the mittimus, and any proper officer might execute and serve the same. In the same year (1866) the government of the school was vested in a board of three trustees, appointed by the Legislature, to hold their office for one year.

Another provision was made — that any parent or guardian could place any boy in their care or custody, in the school, by obtaining from the Probate Court of the district in which such boy resides, a certificate to the effect that the court upon investigation was satisfied that such boy was a proper subject to be sent to the school. The parent or guardian to pay to the school a sum not *less* than one-half the expense of the boy's maintenance at the school annually, or for a less time in advance. The trustees were given full power to discharge any boy from the school at *any time* in case they became *satisfied* that the boy was *fully reformed*. In 1875, it was enacted that no boy under the age of *ten* years shall be sentenced to the school for any offense which by the general law is punishable by *fine only*; provided, that when any boy shall be sentenced by any court to pay a fine, or a *fine* and *costs* and shall be committed for the *non-payment* thereof, *such committment* shall be to the Reform School. An act was also passed making the

term of sentence to the school in all cases during minority. The same year (1875), an act was passed creating a girl's department at the Reform School, with buildings arranged for the complete separation of the sexes, except for educational and religious instruction and such recreations as might be allowed by the trustees and superintendent, in their discretion. Girls not less than ten years nor more than fifteen to be admitted.

In 1876 a law was passed, providing that whenever any boy or girl shall be committed to the school, by order of a justice of the peace or municipal, city, police or county court, the town or city in which such boy or girl resided and had his or her home, next prior to such commitment, shall pay to the board of trustees of said reform school, towards the maintenance of such boy or girl, the sum of fifty cents per week, during his or her continuance at the school.

In 1878 the Governor of the State and trustees of the school were constituted a board of examination that should, during the months of January and June of each year, inquire into the cause of the commitment of each minor in said school, and on separate and private examination, should hear any complaints, requests or petitions that he or she might make, and also confer, if in their judgment the case should require, with the authority committing any minor to said school, or with the selectmen of any town or aldermen of the city from which such minor was committed; and power was given a majority of the board to discharge any boy or girl in case they became satisfied that his or her longer detention in the school would be to his or her disadvantage.

In 1880 changes were made in the manner of commitments, prominent among which were the following:

Children thereafter sent to the school were to be treated as on probation, until such time as inquiry into the cause of their commitment and the previous character of the child should show whether a long detention was necessary, or only a transfer from former bad influences to a good home.

Power was given the trustees to find places for any child committed to the school for a longer or shorter time, as in their judgment was best for the child in each case, etc., and this with a view to shorten the term of detention at the school.

Towns from which boys or girls were committed were required to contribute towards their maintenance one dollar per week so long as they remain under 12 years

of age, and fifty cents per week thereafter, whether in the school or in homes provided for them.

It will be seen, therefore, that at present the necessary funds for the support of our school are provided principally by state appropriations and in part by the payment of one dollar or fifty cents per week, as the case may be, by the towns from which the child is committed; that a parent or guardian may place a child in the school by a Certificate from the Probate Court and by payment annually of at least one-half the expense of his or her maintenance in the school; that all sentences to the school are during minority; that children may be placed out at any time, and for a longer or shorter period in the discretion of the trustees. And here I will add that the superintendent of the school is required to act under the trustees as probation officer, keeping an oversight of all children placed out as long as may be necessary with authority to appoint an agent in the vicinity where the child is placed to act as an adviser and friend of the child. Such agent is to make stated reports of the condition, conduct and welfare of the child, and serve without expense to the state. It is also seen that the same money required to be paid by the towns towards the child's maintenance at the school may be paid to any family with whom the girl or boy may be placed.

We believe that the laws of our State enacted for the government and regulation of our Reform School are, for the most part, wise and efficient, but some we deprecate. The trustees and superintendent are unanimously of the opinion that the law requiring the towns from which a child is committed to pay a certain part of their maintenance at the school (in our State at least) defeats in a part the ends for which the school was established, and ought to be repealed. In a State like our own, consisting of rural districts with few thickly settled towns and no large cities, a purpose to commit a child to the school is at once known and more or less discussed, when a penurious element often creeps in, and much to the discredit to some towns, more thought is given to saving the dollar than the child, and arrangements are made preventing a commitment to the school. Our school at present numbers 63 boys and 18 girls — in all 81.

At one time we numbered 150 boys. The law requiring towns to pay has, we believe, had much to do with lessening our numbers.

Our principal work is caning chairs. As many as are needed work upon the farm and garden. We hope to enlarge this branch of our industry. We have in all 130

acres of land. Our earnings are paid into the treasury of the State.

Our boys and girls occupy separate buildings twenty-seven rods apart.

We bring them together in the chapel — in the boys' department at evening devotions — in the Sabbath school during singing exercises, and at any time for entertainments, lectures, examinations, etc., as we think expedient. After some twenty years experience with boys in the Reform Schools of Massachusetts and Vermont, and having had a girls' department in our school for some seven years, I am more firmly of the opinion than ever, that both sexes may be most happily brought under one management as one school, with buildings sufficiently separated to cut off all intercourse when desirable, and sufficiently near to co-operate fully. In such case the girls may be taught to make and mend the garments of both sexes, they may mainly perform the laundry, kitchen and general housework of each department, and by monthly or stated changes of the girls in performing the work in each and all departments, the girls will become familiar with all branches of industry necessary for their success and preferment in after life. We encourage the larger girls especially, to do fancy and artistic work with the needle, the pen, pencil and brush, during a part of their time for recreation, and very commendable attainments have been made. The good thus derived is two fold, they not only gain a knowledge of the useful and ornamental, but their minds thus interested and employed, are in great measure saved from vitiating tendencies.

Our boys, in their turn, perform all the out-door work that falls to them as in any family, raising all the vegetables used, keeping the roads and grounds in order, and doing the general farm and garden work. Of our boys we form two classes, the one of the older and larger boys, the other of the younger or smaller boys. For these are arranged separate play rooms, reading rooms and sleeping halls, so that in all essential points we can make of them two families as we choose, thus enjoying many of the advantages claimed in both the congregate and family systems. We have no grates or bars in our buildings, save in one small room, where we may lock a boy by himself if need be for punishment and meditation.

We also have two similar reflecting rooms for girls. Our play grounds, are on all sides, without a fence of any kind, and any thing that would suggest the idea of a prison is carefully avoided.

The softening and refining influence of music, the cultivation of flowers and a healthful adornment of the person and its surroundings we regard as powerful adjuncts of reform.

We have a system of grades based upon the merits or demerits each day received. Officers and teachers are only allowed to mark for minor offences, and are limited to giving a certain number of demerits. All special offences, like willful sauciness or disobedience are to be reported in writing to the superintendent, such reports to be handed in each evening. These reports are read publicly in chapel when the boys and girls are met for evening devotions, and the marking or punishment at once assigned, except for certain offences which are laid over until the end of the month when all like offences receive the same markings. The object of this method is to secure to each boy and girl the same just and impartial treatment, punishment or marking at the hands of the superintendent, and that the superintendent may at once be apprised of all important cases of misconduct or disobedience. We believe that the truth that must be realized and felt sooner or later cannot be too prominently taught in all practical ways that upon one's own efforts mainly depends the happiness and success of life. To this end opportunities, privileges, places, and positions of trust and responsibility and an honorable graduation or furlough are incentives. On the other hand, loss of privilege, and much that is desirable, deprivation, dishonor, with leave of absence or a furlough withheld are powerful deterrent agencies. These are among the strongholds of our discipline and reform. Yet we strive for a stronger than these, to instil into the hearts of our boys and girls a love for the right because it is right — moral and religious principle — which underlies and is the foundation of all true reformation.

Our boys and girls work from four to five hours per day according to age and ability and attend school four hours, except on Saturdays, when a half holiday is given. The larger boys who work upon the farm work all day during the summer season as do the farmers' sons throughout the State.

REPORT OF KENTUCKY.

BY GOV. CHARLES ANDERSON.

By arrangement with the Kentucky delegates I am before you to represent Kentucky. I begin by saying that the speaker and the state are at a great disadvantage. It is to be regretted that, with all her eloquent and able men, Kentucky has to be represented on this occasion by me. I listened yesterday to the address of Mr. Cable, and I regretted that he spoke so much truth concerning us. We of Kentucky, and, if my friend of Missouri will permit me, we of the south have never recognized these truths. When the first shot was fired at Fort Sumpter, I made a resolution from that time forward to have no secrets, never to refrain from telling what was true, never to play the hypocrite in any matter affecting the public weal. I tell you, then, that the state of Kentucky has not come up to the point that she should.

We have three institutions for the insane, at Hopkinsville, Anchorage and Lexington. Perhaps the first named is the oldest asylum of this kind west of the Alleghanies. All of these are supposed to be well kept. We have also a deaf and dumb asylum at Danville. This also bears a good reputation. Then we have a blind asylum in this city, and a printing-house for the blind, of which the Hon. William F. Bullock, of the city of Louisville, with Dr. Bell, is the founder. He is a real Kentuckian. He was reared if not born on Beargrass. All glory to the blind asylum and to its founder. For the benefit of those of you who are not Kentuckians and may not know what Beargrass is, I will say that it is a creek which empties into the Ohio river at Louisville. The blue grass of Kentucky is famous, but those who live on Beargrass think theirs the favored section of the state.

One of my neighbors years ago went to Europe. It was

an exceedingly rare thing in those days to go to Europe. My friend wanted to see the great men of the old country. The gentleman who was showing him around, our Secretary of Legation at Berlin, Thos. S. Fay, said to him that he would now take him to see the greatest man in the world. My friend said, "Look here, we won't stand that. Remember that I am from Kentucky, and we have some great men in Kentucky. There is Henry Clay. Who is your great man?" The answer was "the Baron Von Humboldt." "What is he great in? I never heard of him." The gentleman did not know precisely what to say, Humboldt was great in so many things, and he told him he was great in geography. They went in and my friend was introduced, and the Baron asked him where he was from. He said he was from Kentucky. The Baron remarked that he was glad to meet one from the "Dark and Bloody Ground," and asked him from what part of Kentucky he came. My friend answered that he was from Beargrass, and said: "Of course you know where Beargrass is?" Said the Baron: "Beargrass — Beargrass — I must confess that at this moment I do not seem exactly to remember." Said my friend, turning to his companion: "Baron Von Humboldt! Hell! Baron Von Humbug! He don't know where Beargrass is."

We have a House of Refuge here, at Louisville, under the charge of our friend Caldwell, and we are proud to say that there is no better one anywhere.

There is a large body of men in the State of Kentucky, who, instead of being crusaders in the cause of prison reform, are in favor of restoring the law of Moses, "forty stripes save one." I do not take any stock in such philanthropy. I simply abhor it.

There is no man that respects Gov. Vance more than I do; but there were two things that he said that I do not agree with. One is what he told us about the whip-

ping-post, and the other is his statement in regard to the penitentiary of North Carolina. Mr. Cable quoted from the reports of that institution, and these reports were made to Gov. Vance himself, as Governor, I believe.

Mr. Cable never said anything truer than what he said about the outrages perpetrated in the penitentiaries of Missouri and the southern states, and I must say that the Black hole at Frankfort, in my own state, far worse than that of Calcutta, has taught to the rest a great portion of their horrors.

Mr. MILLS, of North Carolina: We did not ask the gentleman from Kentucky to make a report for North Carolina. We will make that report ourselves when the proper time comes. North Carolina will take care of her own affairs. Gov. Vance will be exceedingly glad that he was absent to-day.

Mr. NELSON, of Missouri: I cannot remain silent after listening to what has been said about Missouri. I feel that I would not be a man, did I not resent it. I was one of the first, after the close of the war, and after my return from a twenty months' imprisonment in the North, to advocate the elevation of the colored race. Missouri has good institutions, well managed, and we hope that we shall be allowed to say what we think of them. We resent the report of Missouri being made by a Kentuckian, in the report from his state.

Mr. SOUTH, of Kentucky: I wish to make a statement to this conference in regard to the management of the Kentucky penitentiary. I have heard that an attack has been made upon it and upon my father as the Superintendent. I was connected with the Institution under my father's administration, since 1859, and I think I can speak advisedly upon it. A great many men get up before conferences of this kind and speak about things of which they know nothing. Our Legislature has not made provision for the many that we have had to ac-

commodate, and in some cases we have had to double up and put more in a cell than it would accommodate. That was not our fault. The Joliet penitentiary of Illinois, is one of the best managed Institutions in its line in the country, so much so that the United States authorities send their prisoners to that prison. Its cells are 7x7x4 and our cells are 7x7x3½. The discipline has been very lax. It is much less severe than that in the Joliet penitentary. The result of that was, that the convicts became uncontrollable and unmanageable, and they have had to inflict some punishment.

Mr. ANDERSON: It is the system that I am against. I never blamed your father.

The report of the State Institutions of Wisconsin was filed without reading.

REPORT FOR WISCONSIN.

BY LEWIS A. PROCTOR, OF THE STATE BOARD OF SUPERVISION OF WISCONSIN CHARITABLE, REFORMATORY AND PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

It is probably known to many members of this conference that the legislature of Wisconsin, two years ago last winter, made a radical change in the method of controling the state charitable, reformatory and penal institutions; but, for the information of those not familiar with the nature of this change, I will say that up to the time mentioned the state institutions were each managed by a local unpaid board of trustees appointed by the governor. The change made by the legislature consisted in abolishing all of these boards and providing for the appointment of one paid board to take their places, the members to be appointed by the governor and confirmed by the Senate, and to devote their time exclusively to the work delegated to them. This board is allowed a clerk and given an office in the capitol in which it is required to hold at least one meeting each month, the remainder of the time being devoted to visiting the institutions under its charge, inspecting their condition and needs, and inquiring into their business affairs, the service and executive methods of their officers and giving such advice and direction as circumstances seem to demand. The board is also made a

commission of lunacy, with power to investigate the question of the insanity of any person confined in or committed to any lunatic asylum or hospital in the state, whether public or private, and to take measures for the discharge of any person confined in any such institution who may not be deemed insane. It is further empowered to investigate any and all complaints against the management of the institutions under its charge, to summon and compel the attendance of witnesses, send for books and papers and perform the functions usual to committees of investigation. It is further endowed with judicial functions for the hearing and deciding of cases where counties claim to have been improperly charged with the maintenance of insane persons. The board appoints all the principal officers of the institutions, and has the power of confirmation or rejection of nominations for the minor positions made by the superintendents. It also dictates the salaries, but under a certain maximum regarding those of superintendents.

With such ample powers the board entered upon its responsible duties in June, 1881, and has since devoted itself thereto, with the primary purpose in all its official acts to reduce the cost of the Institutions, and at the same time to promote their efficiency in the accomplishment of the benevolent purposes which dictated their establishment. In this purpose the board has met with a marked degree of success. The actual net cost of the six State Institutions for the fiscal year ending with September, 1882, including the salaries and all expenses of the board, was less per capita than under the old system, while there was a positive improvement in the condition of the Institutions. It is anticipated that the statistics for the current fiscal year will show a similar result as compared with last year, although it will not be so marked, as the work of cutting down expenditures was last year brought well down toward the lowest point.

The average population and total per capita cost of the several Institutions under the charge of the Board for the year ending with September, 1882, were as follows:

Institutions.	Average population.	Total cost.	Yearly cost per capita.	Weekly cost per capita.
State Hospital	469	$95,648 37	$203 94	$3 92
Northern Hospital	529	98,160 02	185 56	3 57
Industrial School for Boys	321	49,598 47	154 51	2 97
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	176	34,375 94	195 32	3 76
Institution for Education of Blind	63	16,726 17	265 49	5 11
State Prison	336	47,751 33	142 12	2 73
Total for all Institutions	1,894	$342,260 30	$180 70	$3 47

The familiarity with what are the absolute needs of these institutions which the members of the board have obtained through frequent visitation, renders possible an intelligent discrimination in making the monthly estimates of expenditures necessary, in each institution which, by law, must precede all purchases by the stewards. The accounts of each institution are systematically kept by the steward or under his direction, while the secretary of the board keeps a full and complete set of books, showing the business affairs of all the institutions, thus placing at the hands of the board the means of ascertaining at any and at all times their exact financial condition, and forming a check to the tendency to exceed appropriations so common in the history of public institutions, and an efficient guard against errors and frauds in business management.

Regarding the treatment of the insane I feel warranted in reporting what the board regards as progress in the direction marked out by the best authorities upon that subject There is less of physical restraint, more of work and out-door exercise. Reports are required of the Superintendents, showing the name, age, social condition and nature of the insanity of all those admitted, discharged, and dead for the month, also the number in restraint, the kind and cause thereof and the changes in the corps of employes. These reports form a very fair summary of the operations of the Hospitals. Notwithstanding that a considerable number of the chronic insane have been transferred to county asylums, the population of the Hospitals has materially increased during the year, being at present 478 in the Hospital

near Madison, and 607 in that near Oshkosh. In the latter the males outnumber the females by 47 and a similar difference between the numbers of the two sexes prevails in the other Hospital. The capacity of the two existing buildings will probably be reached within a year; and the proposition to erect a third building has been quite generally discussed, bills providing therefor having been introduced into the last two legislatures, and strongly advocated therein, the matter having been commended by Gov. Rusk. The amount appropriated for current expenses, including repairs, for the two Hospitals was $139,000.

The number of inmates in the Industrial School for Boys is less than last year, being 275. This is owing principally to the fact that the board has deemed it best for the boys to shorten somewhat the average duration of their retention in the school. In cases where a good record in the school has been maintained and the stay there has exceeded two years, the boys have been released on ticket, provided they had a reasonably good home; or, in the absence of that, they have been found homes with worthy families, principally among the farming communities. Some of the boys so released have had to be returned for bad conduct, but the great majority have fulfilled the promise of good conduct at their release; and but a small per cent. have entered the criminal classes. The problem of what is the best method for reforming this class of boys, many of whom have been most unfortunate in their early home associations is one which the board has by no means solved satisfactorily to itself. As in the case of prison convicts, there is infinite room for speculation, experiment and benevolence ere perfect reformatory methods are reached. Half of the time of the boys is devoted to school exercises, and the other half to work, the industries being the manufacture of boots and shoes, the knitting of socks and mittens, making the clothing for the boys, and farming, besides chore work in the buildings, work in the engine room, the laundry and the bakery. The work upon the farm and garden is the favorite employment of the boys, and the majority of those for whom places have to be found desire to be sent to farmers. The ages between which boys may be committed to the school are ten and sixteen, and the limit of their retention is eighteen. The amount of the appropriation for current expenses, including as in the case of the other institutions, repairs, is $40,000.

The number of pupils in the Institution for the educa-

tion of the Deaf and Dumb has materially increased, being at this time 202, with an anticipated early addition of ten or twelve. The course of instruction embraces the common branches of study with the recent addition of elementary drawing for which some of the pupils show a decided aptness, and in other respects an effort has been made to enlarge the usefulness of the institution. The industrial part of the education here conducted embraces printing, shoe-making, baking and carpentery for the boys, and sewing and housework for the girls. The appropriation for this year is $40,000 for current expenses.

The institution for the education of the Blind opened with 56 pupils, with the prospect of a dozen more at an early day. There are probably as many more in the State of proper age for entering this institution, but whom, on account of the timidity or ignorance of the institution of parents, it has been found difficult to reach. The comparatively small number of pupils in this institution has contributed to keep up the per capita cost. The course of instruction is quite comprehensive and the work thorough and practical in rendering a naturally dependent class in a large measure self-sustaining and independent. The industries are carpet weaving and caning. The appropriation is $18,000.

The State Prison contains 354 convicts, an increase over last year. The number of women is but seven or eight, and has never at any one time exceeded fifteen, and the average has been a fraction short of ten. The number of life convicts is some 45. The labor of the prisoners is let to a company for the manufacture of boots and shoes at fifty cents per day. The proceeds from the labor of the convicts last year fell $16,428 short of paying the cost of the prison, and this year will fall short some ten to twelve thousand dollars, the appropriation being $15,000. The prison is in good condition, and the moral and educational wants of the prisoners properly looked after, there being two chaplains employed, one Protestant and one Catholic, the former of whom devotes his time exclusively to his duties, conducting religious service and a school on the Sabbath, and during the week mingling with the men, conversing with and advising them, and encouraging them to good conduct in the prison and to a better course of life. There is a law under which convicts may, by good conduct, shorten the time of their incarceration; it provides for a diminution of one month for the first year, two months for the second, three months for the third,

four months for the fourth, five months for the fifth, and six months for the sixth and every year thereafter. Many of the prisoners take advantage of this liberal law, and the influence of the system is prolific of good results.

Formerly two physicians were employed, who alternated in visiting the prisoners in the morning before they went to the day's work. This system of medical inspection and treatment was not found satisfactory, and has been superseded by the employment of a resident physician, who devotes his entire time to the work of becoming familiar with the physical condition of the convicts, thus being better qualified to judge of their real needs for medical treatment. The change has resulted in decided advantage to the convicts who are really sick, and better and more work.

The state has its own keepers, and care is taken to prevent anything like injustice to and overwork of the prisoners on the part of the contractors. The contract system has so far been found to work satisfactorily, not being open to the objections so frequently urged, that it is demoralizing and physically injurious. The death rate has been very light — less than that of the average communities outside of prison walls, while the cases of sickness have been comparatively few and seldom serious. The board, therefore, sees no substantial reason for abolishing this plan of employing the prison labor of Wisconsin.

CARE OF THE CHRONIC INSANE.

BY H. WARDNER, M. D.

There is no gainsaying the fact that insanity is steadily and somewhat rapidly increasing. Statistics compiled from year to year place this truth beyond doubt or dispute. Not only is the total number of insane persons growing larger, but the ratio of the insane to the sane is steadily becoming greater.

Nor can we comfort ourselves with the thought that this melancholy state of affairs is either local or temporary.

We have only to examine the statistics furnished by the various countries in which attention is given to social science in order to be convinced that this increase both in the total number of the insane and in the ratio of insane to sane persons, has been going on for many

years and is a phenomenon common to all parts of the civilized world.

It is no part of our present purpose to inquire concerning the causes operating to produce this observed effect, or to seek means for the removal of those causes. It may be that those conditions of modern life which produce the trouble, are capable of correction by legislative action, by a less strenuous and more hygienic system of popular education, or by some other means to be discovered hereafter; or it may be that those conditions constitute a necessary and unavoidable part of our environment, and that in spite of all we may do, they must continue to work until, by elimination and selection, the race shall become fitter than it now is to endure the conditions enforced upon it by modern progress.

These are interesting questions, and they are likely to occupy a large share of attention at the hands of competent investigators. We have now to do with a practical problem forced upon our attention by this increase of insanity. While waiting for the solution of the intricate questions of cause and prevention, we have to deal practically with the fact that the number of the *pauper* insane is large, and still rapidly increasing. The cost of their maintenance is felt as a heavy burden, and however resolute we may be in our determination to bear the burden cheerfully, we cannot blink the fact that it imposes a heavy and increasing tax upon the industry of the sane members of the community. The amount expended by the public for this purpose is great enough in every State in our country, to make an appreciable difference in the tax rates — to add a sum worthy of consideration to the amount that every direct and indirect tax payer must contribute to the public purse.

There is nowhere a thought of abandoning or neglecting the duty we owe to this most unfortunate and helpless class of our fellow beings. The public mean to discharge that duty fully, cost what it may, and no suggestion looking toward a less humane system than that now in use, for the sake of saving the public money or for any other purpose whatever, would be tolerantly listened to by the enlightened intelligence of our time. But may it not be practicable to lessen the public burdens on this account, without shirking the public duty? Cannot means be found by which the duty we owe to this class of unfortunates may be fully discharged at smaller cost than is involved in our present system? Is it not possible to reduce the cost of supporting the chronic insane without reducing their comforts, abridg-

ing their happiness or in the least degree lessening their small chances of complete or partial restoration to mental health?

These are entirely legitimate inquiries, and indeed it is the duty of those who are concerned in any way with the practical conduct of this matter, to prosecute such inquiries with all the earnestness of which they are capable. If means can be found by which to diminish the cost of caring for the chronic insane without injury to their welfare and happiness, the result must be clear gain in every way. And if, as there is reason to believe, the adoption of a more economical system may be made to increase instead of diminishing both the happiness of the patients and their chances of recovery, humanity as well as public policy must urge the making of such a change.

It is a pressing duty to inquire what can be done in this direction, what modifications we need to make in our present system, and how the best results of that system may be secured at smaller cost.

And first the question arises: why is our present system so costly? How did it come about that so expensive a system was adopted, not in one place, but well nigh everywhere, if a more economical method of caring for the chronic insane is practicable?

The answers to these questions will be found in the history of insanity, and of the public attitude toward the insane.

In less enlightened times than ours, insanity was universally regarded as a demoniacal possession. Sometimes the sufferer was reverenced as the subject of inspiration, but the far more common opinion was that the victim of insanity was possessed of devils. He was not pitied as a victim, but censured rather as a sinner, inasmuch as the devils were supposed to enter only at the invitation or consent of the man into whom they came. Cruel treatment of the insane was held, therefore, to be both deserved — because of the individual sinfulness of the sufferer and necessary as a therapeutic agency — a means of driving out the devils. Accordingly the insane were incarcerated in loathsome jail cells, chained like wild beasts, or half-starved and wholly maltreated in poor houses.

Little by little this superstitious diagnosis gave way before intelligent investigation. Little by little the truth dawned, and men learned that insanity is disease or the symptom of disease, as truly as fever is.

Then a reaction took place. It was felt that careful

and intelligent treatment at the hands of physicians might be hopeful in cases of insanity as well as in other physical ailments. But treatment in most cases of insanity was necessarily different when the patient was kept at home. Proper care and the intelligent execution of the physician's plans, were in most cases, out of question.

Moreover, it was impossible for the physician in ordinary practice. to give to an insane patient that measure of attention which was needed, and so long as physicians saw only the few cases of insanity that fell to their care in the course of general practice, it was impossible for them to make broad and thorough studies of the pathology and therapeutics of lunacy.

For these reasons, and because most of the insane require special supervision and restraint, it was early obvious that hospitals exclusively devoted to this class of patients were necessary. The hospital once established, soon became an asylum, also a house of refuge for hopelessly diseased minds. This was the natural course of development. But the reaction in the public mind already spoken of, soon took the form of works meet for repentance. As if groaning under an uneasy consciousness of its own former cruelty, the public sought to make atonement by lavishing compassion upon the class of afflicted persons who had before suffered neglect and harshness. Where our forfathers dealt cruelly with the wretch who was supposed to entertain devils more or less willfully, we look with tenderest pity upon the victim of the most direful affliction known to man.

In our eagerness to express this passion in acts, we surround many of our insane fellow beings not only with every appliance for their comfort, and every safeguard against unnecessary sufferings, but in many instances also with every luxury that can be provided. Many of the hospitals we build are palaces in which we house them, and we place them in the midst of a life of idleness, such as ninety-nine out of every hundred of them never knew before. We exempt them not only from the usual responsibilities of life for which their malady unfits them, but also from that smaller measure of responsibility which they are generally capable of assuming, and the assumption of which would be positively beneficial in most cases.

All this is as it should be, so far as the feeling involved is concerned. It is right that we should cherish these unfortunates with loving compassion, and seek to bring

as much of sunshine into their darkened lives as possible. But not every well meant effort of man is wise, and there are good reasons for believing that in our efforts to do our duty to the insane we have sometimes exceeded the limits of necessary expenditure, and have even wrought discomfort and unhappiness by our mistaken efforts to produce the opposite effects.

Let us take the character and cost of the buildings provided for this purpose as an illustration. The average cost of Asylums in this country is about *one* thousand dollars for each patient, some hospitals costing as high as five thousand dollars per capita. The best estimates on the other hand, show that the average cost of housing the people of this country in their separate homes is less than two hundred and fifty dollars per capita. This estimate includes even the costly homes of city millionares whose insane relatives are rarely found in public institutions, so that an average of two hundred and fifty dollars per capita is considerably more than the cost of housing the great mass of the American people. It follows that we lodge our insane four or five times more expensively than the people generally are lodged. We take them from ordinary homes at best, and from hovels in many cases, and place them in duress palatial, and it is proper to inquire whether so radical a change is either necessary or conducive to the happiness of the patients. It is proper to ask whether the chronic insane might not be housed equally well at less expense, and whether in other ways the cost of their maintenance might not be reduced without in any way reducing their comfort or interfering with their welfare. We believe that this may be accomplished easily, not only without injury, but with positive benefit to them and greatly to the increase of their happiness and comfort. This conviction rests firmly upon well understood facts in mental hygiene, and upon the results of practical experiment.

It may be laid down as a rule to which there are no exceptions, that human nature requires employment. Work is an essential condition of happiness and even of comfort. Idleness, except as a brief relaxation from work, is a source of weariness, unhappiness and ill-health both of body and mind. It is only within the narrowest limits that what we call the luxuries of life, contribute to human enjoyment and content. A life of habitual idleness in the midst of luxurious surroundings is always and everywhere a life of morbid discontent. These are truths which every student of human nature recognizes. We know that in work, and especially in

self-supporting, responsible work, we find the only real balm there is in Gilead, the only condition essential to the well being and comfort of body and mind.

And yet in our dealings with the insane, we too often forget these truths, and act as if they were the exact reverse of true. We shut up these unfortunates within palatial asylums, where they are condemned to lives of listless idleness, without occupation and void of all responsibility. We give them nothing to do, and rob them of healthful self care. Their lives are regulated for them. Their wants are supplied without effort or responsibility of their own. They are condemned to the daily contemplation of their own and others' afflictions. They are invited, nay even compelled, to resort to introspection as their only sure intellectual occupation. We do indeed seek to provide amusement for them, but there is no seriousness, no earnestness of purpose, no absorbing interest in such occupations as are possible to the majority of patients in an ordinary asylum.

It is not necessary to enlarge this account of the prevalent idleness, ennui, discontent, and other conditions which exist in nearly all asylums, and which must continue to exist until a change is made in the system.

The nature of the evil suggests the remedy. We need to recognize the fact that a great number of the chronic insane have a positive and urgent need of daily employment at some obviously useful work. Most of them would be better and happier, too, if more simply housed in smaller masses than at present. In other words, most of them need to live more natural, more industrious and more responsible lives than they do or can under the existing system, and conditions of greater healthfulness and comfort may be found, we are convinced, in a system looking toward the less costly management of asylums.

In such a system there is room for considerable variety with respect to details, but my own experience and observation lead me to the conclusion that the best solution to the problem is to be found in the substitution of large farms for the large asylum buildings. There should be provided not less than an acre for each inmate up to one thousand, and half an acre for each inmate in excess of that number. Upon such a farm the chronic insane should be housed simply but comfortably, not in one large building but in several of smaller dimensions, which can be built, ventilated, drained and maintained at less expense. The inmates should be encouraged to work — each according to his capacity —

some in tilling the ground and others at various mechanical employments, each contributing something toward the support of the Institution, and all enjoying the benefits, bodily and mental, which arise from regular responsible industry, and from a consciousness of personal usefulness. The work should for many reasons be voluntary, and experience shows that the desire to work is sufficent inducement to prompt many to share in the employments going on about them. It will be for the physicians and attendants to restrain undue eagerness and to see that each patient performs only so much labor as is good for him. They should treat the work chiefly as a hygienic and therapeutic agency — as a means of promoting the health and happiness and, above all, the contentment of their wards. But the work must be of a useful kind in order that the patients may be interested in it, and it should be made to contribute to the support of the workers, both for their sake and in the interest of economy. The cost of the buildings necessary to the carrying out of such a plan, will be much smaller than the necessary cost under the prevalent system, and the cost of maintaining the patients — as experience shows — is also less than in an ordinary Asylum, while the work done by the inmates in farming, gardening, road-repairing, etc., may be made to defray a considerable portion of this reduced expense.

This plan of asylum constitution and management is suggested not less in the interest of the patients than in that of a public which is heavily taxed for the support of the insane. There can be no doubt that the universal human need of healthful employment for mind and body exists with the insane as well as with the sane, and the observations of hospital physicians shows that the insane, at least many of them, eagerly welcome every opportunity for such employment.

But in addition to the teaching of ordinary observation in this direction, we have some notable testimony in the reports of extended experiment, and such testimony uniformly shows that the insane feel the need of precisely what it is here sought to give them, namely, a more natural daily life, free access to the open air, a sense of release from restraints of asylum life, earnest work and a qualified responsibility for themselves and their support.

With respect to one of the two features of the plan suggested, namely, the cheaper and simpler housing of the insane, I may be allowed to cite some passages from my report of our enforced experiment at Anna during

the summer of 1881. The burning of a wing of the asylum in April of that year compelled us to furnish temporary quarters for two hundred and sixty-four patients. A simple building or barracks, well ventilated and drained, furnished with hot and cold water, and lighted with gas, was erected at a total cost of only thirty-seven dollars per capita for the patients it accommodated, and the results of its occupation were so favorable in every way, especially in the gratification of the patients, that the structure, although intended at first only to serve a temporary purpose, is now being completed for permanent use. I quote as follows:

"The patients assigned to these quarters were chronic cases, a considerable portion of them being demented, epileptic, or paralytic. In noting the result of this forced experiment, we observed that the change was highly pleasing to these afflicted people. A poor, demented, old man who had been unable to get out of the hospital with the others in their daily walks exclaimed, 'I thank God my foot is on the ground once more.'

"They delighted in the free, open air of the court yards, which, by the way, were well shaded with forest trees and amply furnished with seats. They lost the sickly pallor usually observed among patients kept within walls. The ample space left each man free to exercise in his own peculiar way without infringing upon the privileges of his neighbors; and consequently the irritation and assaults, especially among the epileptics, provoked by limited quarters, and personal contact, have been reduced to the minimum. During the entire season there have been but three or four occasions to use restraint, and those arose from epileptic excitement. These patients have been remarkably healthy during the season, no case of serious disease having originated or developed among them. They have been contented and the number of escapes has not been more than in previous years.

Sleeping as they have in such large associate dormitories seems to have had the effect to keep them more quiet, and with the exception of occasional excitement from epileptic attacks, there has been no more disturbance than might have occurred had the same number of sane people been lodged in the same room. Those who had previously been noisy and disturbed their neighbors, while occupying single rooms or small dormitories, out of consideration for others, or in consequence of the restraining influence of numbers, and the eye of the night attendant, became quiet and acquired the habit of keep-

ing still, if not of sleeping well. In fact a general improvement has been observable both in physical and mental conditions."

The Asylum at St. Joseph, Missouri, met with a similar misfortune in 1876, which forced upon the management the necessity of providing temporarily for their patients during the reconstruction of the Hospital.

In the biennial report of that institution for 1881, the Superintendent, Dr. Catlett, asserts that his experience in providing for the insane in cottages and farm dwellings, during the reconstruction of the hospital, a period of fourteen months, has in his judgment established the expediency and practicability of providing for all classes of insane in far less expensive dwellings than the model asylum edifice. The Doctor notes particularly the beneficial effects of the free out-door life upon the irritable, excitable and enfeebled patient. He concludes his remarks upon the subject in the following language:

"I extract from the valuable crucible of experience lessons in therapy and provisions for insane, which tend to convince me that the model asylum edifice of this era of psychological activity is perhaps erected both at the too great expense of the humane public, as well as opposed to the best hygiene and curative interest of the improved and chronic insane; or, in other words, I am almost persuaded to assert my belief that less expensive segregated cottages, erected on asylum farms, for the treatment of the improved and chronic insane, sufficiently near the main edifice where all can be under one supervision, and where exchange of patients may readily be made, when the condition of the patient requires it, would be a very great improvement in the present mode of provision and treatment of the insane."

It is to the Willard Asylum of New York, however, that we must look for the best light of experience with respect to both features of this plan. That asylum was organized as a well considered experiment. Its purpose was to separate the chronic from the acute cases, and separately to maintain the chronic insane at less cost and in better conditions than are possible under the mixed asylum and hospital system.

The experiment has passed from its experimental stage and is a pronounced success, so that the results achieved may be fairly regarded as those that must follow every well conducted scheme of a similar kind. In addition to such farm, garden and mechanical work as is contemplated in the farm plan here suggested, the patients at Willard Asylum have been employed upon special undertakings connected with the institution or conducing in some way to its better and cheaper conduct.

In the report of the Trustees for 1882, we read as follows:

"Under the permission granted by the last Legislature a road bed has been cleared and graded, four and one-third miles in length. The work was not enforced from patients, but was voluntarily and cheerfully performed. Although occupied for over three months almost continuously, they closed the work in better health, improved in both mind and body, than when they commenced. * * * It required more effort to restrain overwork on the part of the industrious than to induce the labor of others. Judged by this experiment, in which one hundred and fifty to two hundred able bodied lunatics were laboring together, the inference is conclusive that under proper management and with due care it is not only safe for them to labor, even in unusual occupations, but that it is conducive to their mental comfort and health. Employment diverts from morbid fancies and troublesome hallucinations."

The testimony of the Medical Superintendent is to the same effect. He speaks confidently of the great influence regular occupation is "known to exert upon the health, comfort, quietude, and contentment of the insane, particularly the insane of the chronic class."

Upon the plan which seems to me to offer the best and surest solution of the problem, such work as railroad building is not contemplated. The scheme looks chiefly to the employment of the chronic insane in man's most natural work, namely the cultivation of the soil. I would have the state provide large asylum farms, each capable of comfortably accommodating a large number of persons and affording them abundant occupation. Upon these farms should be built structures of moderate size and cost, well ventilated and drained, and placed at convenient distances from each other. In these buildings the chronic insane can be housed at much less cost per capita than at present, with greater freedom of access to the air and sunshine at all hours. The able-bodied men should be expected to cultivate the land in farm and garden crops suitable for the maintenance of the institution. Those who understand mechanical trades should be set to work at them, chiefly at asylum work.

The women can be employed at ordinary women's work — household labors, sewing, etc. In brief, all the patients should be made to live as nearly as possible after the manner of sane people, each group constituting a household under the general charge of proper attendants, in which the inmates may live comfortably rather than luxuriously, while contributing by their labor to their own support. We have sufficient experience already to be certain that a scheme of this nature is en-

tirely practicable, and if the plan is ever generally adopted, experience from year to year, will point the way to its gradual perfection in details.

The considerations in favor of the adoption of some such plan may be summarized as follows:

1st. It should greatly cheapen the cost to the public of supporting the chronic insane, whose support in model asylums is now a very serious burden upon the industry of the people.

2d. It will benefit the insane themselves, improving their physical and mental health, increasing their comfort, and freeing them from conditions which tend to morbid introspection and discontent.

The only objections that can be urged against the plan are founded either in a mistaken notion of duty, or in a misapprehension of the conditions which best promote their welfare and happiness. Upon this point I cannot better present the true view than by quoting a passage from the report of the Medical Superintendent (Dr. John B. Chapin) of the Willard Asylum, for 1882. Dr. Chapin writes as follows:

> It would be a matter of regret if any erroneous impression should prevail relative to the employment of such insane persons in asylums who, in the judgment of the physicians have the capacity and strength to work. Patients and their friends have sometimes, though quite rarely, ventured an opinion that having gained admission to an asylum, or being committed against their will, they were entitled to a generous support in ease. We know of no principle of social ethics which exempts any member of society from contributing according to his capacity, to his support, neither can there be any valid objection to the application of the avails of the labor of the insane, situated as they are here, to the reduction in some measure of the cost of their support. Labor, employment and occupation are the common lot and burden of the larger portion of every community. No one claims exemption from conditions, which all human experience shows to be, on the whole, most conducive to health, happiness and contentment. If these principles may properly be said to be applicable to the sane, they are in a qualified sense to be borne in mind in devising a system for the care of that portion of the insane who are in that stage of their disease in which they do not require the administration of medicine, or for those who are not suffering from appreciable physical infirmity. We refer, of course, to the able-bodied chronic insane. They need plans of buildings adapted to their varied and variable state. They need, as nearly as practicable, the surroundings of domestic life and facilities to carry on the occupations to which they have been accustomed when sane. They should be brought as closely as possible in accord with the duties, occupations and relations that have governed them when sane. The central thought outlining any systematic employment of the chronic insane must needs regard occupation as one of the great moral agencies which may be brought to bear upon the disordered mental state, with the hope of converting the operations of the mind into normal channels of thought and action. The results of continued and prolonged occupation cannot be more strongly expressed than by reiterat-

ing the statement made in a previous report, that the diversion of "a large proportion of the insane from a mental state in which they are incapacitated for self-support or self-preservation to their ordinary avocations, is a result to be achieved, second only to recovery. The habits, sleep and physical condition are improved, life is rendered more tolerable, mental quietude is promoted, and paroxysmal excitement is lessened."

Dr. Griffin, of South Carolina: *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* I have no prepared report from our state. I only say that from the establishment of our first asylum, fifty years ago, our state has steadily pursued the policy of providing for all of its insane. From time to time the original asylum has been enlarged and improved, until just before the war, when the state decided to build a new asylum. The increase of insanity, as our population increased, has rendered it imperative on us to have more space for their accomodation. We have erected temporary accomodations for the inmates and are building a hospital, yet with all these accomodations we are now overcrowded and it has become necessary to make other provisions. The popular mind is very much exercised just now as to how it is best to proceed, and it is to settle this question that the Governor has sent so large a delegation to this conference. The plan which most of us are disposed to adopt is that which is suggested in the paper which has just been read, and which has to some extent already been carried out in our state.

Dr. Bryce, of Alabama: I listened with great pleasure to the paper of Dr. Wardner. There are some points in it that are more important than others. The subject of provision for the chronic insane has been before us for a great many years. There has been a great diversity of opinion as to the best method of taking care of the insane. I have been in charge of a hospital for the care of the insane for twenty-five years and have watched the growth of these questions.

In my hospital, out of five hundred patients, seventy-five per cent. of them are engaged at work. By every means in our power we encourage them in habits of industry. Within the last eighteen months we have abolished restraints.

MR. WRIGHT: How do you manage in cases where formerly restraints were used?

DR. BRYCE: This system has so changed our institution, that cases which used to be unmanageable are now handled without trouble. It takes greater care on our part.

Mr. WRIGHT: Do you use "ducking" as a means of restraint?

Dr. BRYCE: No, sir.

Mr. WRIGHT: Have you unlocked wards?

Dr. BRYCE: Yes, sir; but we do not leave all the doors open. In some of the English and Scotch Asylums all the doors are left open.

Mr. WRIGHT: How about the number of attendants? In the English asylums there are a great number of attendants. Sometimes they have as high as one to every five patients.

Dr. BRYCE: Some have private attendants. We have something like one to ten. Then, too, we have out-door attendants.

Dr. DEWEY: It seems to me that there are two points that come up that require a good deal of consideration as to methods in county institutions and methods in state asylums. What may be a proper method in a county institution with a limited number of patients may not be a good way in a state institution.

Mr. HART: In regard to the matter of restraints, I would like to ask to what extent sedative drugs are used in your institution?

Dr. BRYCE: Drugs are not used in our Institution as restraints. When a man in the asylum gets in a paroxysm

we give him a sedative. We use drugs for no other cause than that.

The following report was then read by Dr. Isaac L. Peet, of New York:

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

In a complex government like ours, a special knowledge is required for each department, and this knowledge can be acquired only by a close study of details.

While the functions of foreign relations, of external and internal commerce, of postal and telegraphic intercommunication, and of finance, and what may be called the general good and the general convenience are performed by the national executive and legislature; to each State are reserved all the questions which relate to the individual, his rights and his protection in their enjoyment.

Here social science finds her field, and the result is that the tendency of state governments is to commit to special bodies of men, or to particular individuals who have made, or are expected to make, the subject in hand a matter of study, the supervision of public works, of prisons, of education, of the public health, and of the amelioration of the condition of the abnormal and defective classes of society, so that a wise, if not uniform system, may be introduced, and proper accountability and appropriate legislation may be secured.

The wisdom of this course of procedure is shown in the fact of the annual assemblage of a body like this, composed of the boards or commissions in each State respectively, to which have been entrusted the supervision of the Institutions established for the care of the poor, the orphaned, the insane, the blind and the deaf. Here are attracted philanthropists and specialists ready to impart and receive the information derived from years of thought, observation and experience, and here are discussed the living questions and the current difficulties which have come up before the commissioners in their separate capacity. Here methods of practice and procedure are compared, and differences and coincidences noted; and here may be expected to spring up those broader conceptions of the work to be done, and those higher ideals which will result, not only in the gradual

elevation of the objects of their care, but also, in arousing, in public sentiment, a spirit of humanity, which, in the economy demanded, shall insist not on the diminution of the amount of money to be expended, but on its better and wiser application.

Before such a body it is a privilege to discuss the claims of the deaf to such assistance as shall enable them, notwithstanding the immense disabilities imposed upon them by nature, to take their place as useful and self-supporting citizens. Their case is one mainly of education, but still of education pursued under very different circumstances from those surrounding the average hearing youth. For the latter, the school is brought to their very doors. The former have to be brought to the school. The reason of this is obvious. Hearing children are the rule, deaf children the exception. Of the former according to the most recent statistics, there are 1,482 to one of the latter. Hence, even in the same city, if of considerable size, only a small proportion can be taught in a day school with any advantage, the distances from the school to the residences of the parents being such as to preclude the attendance of all except the few who reside in the immediate vicinity. The Rev. William Stainer of London, England, has perhaps investigated this subject more thoroughly and practically than any other single individual. An expert in deaf-mute instruction, as well as a minister of the Gospel, his attention was early awakened to the striking inadequacy of means to ends in the education of the deaf in the Metropolitan district. The old Kent road Institution founded in the year 1792, by the Rev. John Townsend, and endowed by gradual accumulation of donations and bequests from year to year, had found itself with an income sufficient to support and educate three hundred pupils but no more. The vacancies occasioned by graduation were filled by ballots cast by the life members and annual subscribers. There were then found to be three hundred deaf-mutes of school age growing up without instruction. To rescue these unfortunate children from the life of hopeless ignorance and helpless irresponsibility which impended over them, this philanthropic man presented their case before the London School Board, and succeeded in inducing that body to consent to set apart school rooms in five of their school buildings, and to pay the salaries of fifteen teachers, or three teachers in each building, for the exclusive benefit of the deaf and dumb.

In this way, he secured the provision for the instruc-

tion of a large number of pupils, but though the rooms set apart were in buildings situated in what might be called representative districts, he soon found that he could not reach even one hundred of his proposed beneficiaries. They were still too far off to admit of their regular attendance. He was, therefore, obliged to apply to the parish boards for appropriations to cover the cost of furnishing food to such of these children as he was able to concentrate in buildings which he hired, in the vicinity of the different schools which had been designated. To pay the rent, he drew largely from his own private means, and secured the balance by appeals to benevolently disposed persons.

In this way, and in this way only, was he able to collect 200 out of the 300 deaf mute children for whose education no other provision had been made. The remainder he hopes to reach in due time, but he is satisfied that the work has exceeded the resources of private benevolence, and that it is the duty of the state to furnish both home and school for the uneducated deaf. In this view, he is seconded by all the teachers of the deaf in the United Kingdom, and it is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when, in this respect as well as in other departments of popular education, the old country will find a favorable influence reacting upon her from the new, and that her policy, hereafter, will be to secure the benefit of the many as well as of the few.

Another feature in the education of the deaf is that the school is far more to them than it is to the hearing. With the latter, it is in a great degree formulative. Through the ear, they have acquired and are constantly acquiring a knowledge of the language of the country in which they live. Every one they meet, is, to some extent, their teacher, and every variety of expression comes to them unsought. The ideas current in the community in which they live, the general stock of knowledge, the intellectual atmosphere which is characteristic of the place of their abode are theirs without conscious effort to obtain them. As was once said to the writer by your President, Mr. Wines, in conversation on this subject, "the ordinary child is like the Æolian Harp, which is played upon by every breeze that blows; the deaf child is like the violin whose strings respond only to the hand of the master."

In the school, hearing children learn to recognize, in the form of written or printed words, the language they have already acquired through hearing, and to express by pen or pencil the words they have heretofore been ac-

customed to utter with the voice. So with all the studies to which their attention is afterward called. There is scarcely one for which they have not been prepared and of which they do not know a considerable amount before they enter upon its serious prosecution under the direction of the teacher. In fact, so much is acquired through the ear, that it would seem that the late distinguished president of Yale College, Dr. Dwight, was hardly guilty of exaggeration when he said that every hearing child learned more during the first three years of his life than during all the rest besides.

With the deaf child, however, the life outside the school is a blank. He has eyes, but he sees not. Nature and art present to him their choicest treasures, but, without the informing ear he knows nothing of the true relations which subsist among them, or even of his own relation to them. He is isolated from kindred and friends, from the world in which he lives, and even from the Divine Father, who, in the person of his son, once said to him *Ephphatha* and says it to him again only, when in Christian lands, he is admitted to the school, where all that has been hidden from him is unveiled. The time to be spent here is not to be measured by the shorter course required by the hearing youth. In fact, it requires years to bring the deaf child up to the point where the hearing child begins, and then years must be added to bring about a corresponding advance.

Another peculiarity of this special work is the limited number that can be successfully taught by a single teacher. Twenty deaf mutes are regarded as a large class, even in this country where the manual alphabet and the sign language so effectively address the eye and compel the attention, while, in Europe, where the subtle and less visible modes of expression and reception by means of articulation and lip-reading are sought to be exclusively employed in instruction, the classes range from five to ten. The reason for this is that, no matter how general the instruction of the deaf may be at times, they must, on the whole, be dealt with less in the mass, and more as individuals. The mental idiosyncracies of each, involving failure on the part of one pupil to grasp what is easily understood by another, the treachery of memory in one case — demanding as it does, constant repetition, and the tendency to carelessness in another, and the great variety of misconception and misconstruction requiring individual correction in regard to everything written or spoken, make it necessary for the teacher to divide the time allotted to him into almost as

many parts as he has pupils, and consequently, with few exceptions, the larger the class, the slower is the progress, and the smaller the class the greater the progress.

This is measurably true with regard to hearing children, and there is no question but that the classes in the public schools in great cities are often too large for the highest advancement. Still, the hearing pupil *can* be taught to do more for himself than is ever possible for the deaf, and the knowledge imparted by oral lecture or delved out of books under the necessity of preparing for public recitation, is sufficient to relieve the system of the charge of failure in the great majority of cases. In the class-room, moreover, even though the number gathered together be large, each pupil can, without effort, take in, through the ear, all that is said by his fellows in reply to the questions asked, and thus obtain the advantage of looking upon the subject from many points of view. When to this is added the greater amount of care which has to be exercised over the deaf child, especially in those early years when the Institution is substituted for home, the proportionate expense of deaf-mute education is seen to be far greater than that of their more favored brethren.

Another element still, which it is a pity were not recognized as forming a part of all public education, is the industrial education of the pupils. A mere knowledge of language and of books would not elevate the deaf mute above the condition of an unskilled laborer, and so overstocked is this particular form of employment, that it is doubtful whether he would be able to support himself thereby. He might, to be sure, be prepared for business, for art and for teaching in the ordinary curriculum, but the proportion of opportunity for self-support in these directions, even to those well-fitted for them by talent and education, is so small, that the great majority would seek in vain for remunerative employment.

There remains, therefore, as the great resource, that combination of ingenuity, knowledge, tact and aptitude with manual dexterity which characterizes the successful artisan and makes of him often the true artist. The length of time required to give a deaf child an available knowledge of language and of the ordinary subjects embraced in a good common school education, hardly stops short of that period when the ordinary apprentice reaches his majority and his recognition as a journeyman, and hence it is desirable that those considerable intervals of time which cannot be profitably

utilized in intellectual culture and development, should be devoted to the acquisition of a mechanical trade.

Taken young and kept at study till the age of sixteen, a pupil might be so advanced that it would be possible to let him then graduate and be set to work at learning a trade. In these days of Trades Unions, however, where there is so much jealousy of apprentice labor that practically the number of apprentices as compared with the number of journeymen in the same establishment is extremely limited, it would be next to impossible, in this country at least, to find masters who would encumber themselves with the instruction of those with whom free communication would be comparatively difficult. The matter, then, resolves itself into the consideration of the question whether, on the one hand, separate Institutions should be established for teaching trades to the deaf after a certain amount of education has been obtained, or whether these trades should be taught alternately with literary and artistic work in the schools already existing.

In the case of public schools for hearing children, it would seem desirable, that upon the completion of a certain course of study, there should be a transfer to an industrial school supported by taxation, wherein different branches of industry were taught and wherein the youth admitted should be prepared for active usefulness in the world. With the deaf, however, there are certain advantages to be derived from their continued association with those who, familiar with their difficulties and with the best means of overcoming them, are accustomed to communicate with them, and also from that interchange of intellectual and manual occupation which leads them to apply the principles suggested by the one, and to seek for terms, definitions and appropriate phraseology for the operations involved in the other, thus making theory and practice go hand in hand, and mind and body act and react upon each other.

Under this view, the industrial education of the pupils is not to be regarded as a source of profit to the Institution, nor even as carrying with it the elements of self-support. It must rather be considered a means to an end, and that end the converting of the learner into an accomplished workman able to compete successfully with the most skillful and ingenious of those with whom he is hereafter to run the race of life. The contract system, whereby the labor of boys and girls is let out for a pecuniary consideration per day or week, is, therefore, to be specially avoided. The teachers of each trade and oc-

cupation to be learned must not only understand its scope and be recognized as masters of its details, but they must be able and anxious to impart the secret of their skill by a graduated course of exercises and by constant exemplification of their methods.

The best tools should also be furnished in all the variety required by first-class workmen, and the pupil trained not only in their use, but in the care which is needed to keep them in proper condition.

In many of the institutions in this country, the occupations attempted to be taught are, for the boys, cabinet-making, joinering, shoemaking, tailoring, printing, book-binding and gardening; and for the girls, domestic and ornamental sewing, both with and without the machine, dressmaking, shirtmaking, tailoring, and the folding and stitching of sheets for the book-binder. To this might profitably be added millinery.

The faults of the system arise from the economy too often made inevitable by insufficient appropriations. The foremen and forewomen who teach, are, in some cases, inferior to what their pupils ought to become; the tools and machinery are inadequate, and the work required has too often been of that rough character which can only be utilized in the Institution itself, or be disposed of at less than the cost of the material.

This is probably a penny wise and pound foolish policy, for the greater the perfection of workmanship attained, the more likely would the Institution be, to be, at least partially, remunerated for the cost of materials and instruction, while, by the failure to turn out first-class workmen, it not only falls short of the end to be accomplished, but deprives itself of the most enthusiastic and sympathetic instructors in the persons of its graduates.

Perhaps the two most notable exemplifications, in this connection, of the right men in the right place and of their methods of procedure are the teacher of printing in the New York Institution, and the teacher of Horticulture in the Paris Institution. The former, Mr. E. A. Hodgson, is a thoroughly educated deaf man, who is perfectly familiar with every process, principle, implement and machine employed in printing, and as a practical printer has few if any superiors. His aim is to make his pupils understand everything to be done and the reason for it. He teaches thoroughly the art of punctuating, of paragraphing, of capitalizing and of the division of syllables. He gives thorough lessons on the different kinds of type and their relations to each other. He gives rules for type setting which are never to be

violated. He teaches those canons of good taste by conformity to which alone a pleasing effect can be produced, and a page be made agreeable to the eye. He teaches every technical term employed in his art. Besides all this, he, by degrees, initiates his pupils into the practical work of type setting, the cleansing of types, their distribution and care, the correction of proof, the setting up, and locking up of forms, the preparation of paper, the adjustment of the press, the use of rollers, the even and exact application of the ink, and the setting in motion, the feeding and the control of the press.

He makes his pupils experts in card printing, job printing, book printing and newspaper printing. In furtherance of his designs he edits a weekly paper which has become the organ of the deaf mutes of the country, and exercises a healthful influence among them.

Through the appreciation by the Directors of the practical value of what he is doing, he has been supplied with everything he asks for, so that nothing is wanting in the completeness of his instruction. The result is that year after year he sends forth young men whose skill so recommends them, that they find no difficulty in obtaining and retaining remunerative positions, and what is incidentally gratifying, though not so essential, makes his office actually pay its own expenses.

The garden of the institution in Paris, France, embraces about an acre. The buildings of the institution border it on one side. There is an open fence on the south, and the other two sides are enclosed by a high wall which surrounds the premises, and there is a well-appointed green house. About twenty boys are detailed to work in it a portion of each day. The gardener is an enthusiast, well educated, and though a hearing man, conversant with signs. Within the limited area at his disposal he raises every kind of dwarf fruit tree, of grape vine, of vegetables and a great variety of flowers — the rosary being exquisite.

As this is a horticultural school, and what is raised comprises little more than specimens — no profit, even that which arises from the house consumption is derived from it, but the boys become consummate gardeners, obtain excellent situations in the country, and write him grateful letters after they leave the institution, telling him how their hearts warm towards him when they reflect upon what resource he has placed in their hands. He teaches them every branch of horticulture including the preparation of the ground, the sowing of the seed, the

budding, grafting and pruning of trees and vines, and the gathering of vegetables and fruit. In the winter, he teaches them the care of the green house and gives them a thorough course of vegetable physiology and botany. By means of diagrams, he teaches them the principles of laying out grounds and makes them describe, both by writing and by drawing, every part of the plant and every tool employed, with the mode and philosophy of its use. Some of the pupils showed themselves superior draftsmen, and all of them manifested familiarity with the language appropriate to horticulture and other departments of agriculture.

I was much gratified on the occasion of one of several visits to him, to see the evidence of intellectual as well as technical development contained in their compositions, their letters, their herbariums and their drawings. These cases have been mentioned by way of illustration of what may be regarded as the best method of the simultaneous training of the hand and mind, and are not intended to do injustice to other excellent men engaged in this kind of teaching such, for example, as Mr. Parley Pratt, a graduate of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf, now master of the shoe shop connected therewith, who has gained quite a reputation among his deaf mute brethren for his peculiar skill in industrial instruction.

It is in points like these that the State Boards of Charities can come to the aid of the Institutions. They can, on the one hand, impress the managers with a sense of the importance of thorough work in this direction, and they can, on the other, educate public sentiment and influence legislation so that adequate means may be furnished for the accomplishment of this truest charity — a charity which will be more than repaid by the returns which the skilled artisan will make to the public weal.

In other respects, moreover, they exercise a salutary influence not only by their oversight of economic administration and their ability to assure the legislature that the public money is wisely expended in the case of Institutions for the deaf, both in the quality and preparation of the food furnished, so important with a class of persons who depend upon abundant and suitable nutrition to build up a constitution originally enfeebled by the physical causes which gave rise to their misfortune, and in that domestic care and watchfulness which will secure good habits of life and favorable sanitary conditions; but also by proclaiming the necessity, on high public grounds of relieving the deaf, by education, of those disabilities which make them :

1st. Dangerous to the community, because, without education, they have no means of discriminating between right and wrong, and are, therefore, liable to yield to the influences of passion, and of a mistaken sense of justice, and to confound their desires with their rights. In this sense, paradoxical as it may seem, uneducated deaf-mutes have been innocently guilty of every crime denunciated by the decalogue, thinking all the while, that, in following out the impulses of their nature, they were doing right, though thereby they inflicted fearful wrong upon their fellow men.

2d. A loss to the community of a class capable of becoming valuable citizens, a condition opposed to all the theories upon which our peculiar form of government relies for its success.

3d. A burden upon the community, dependent, through their lives, for support and protection, as well as liable to forcible confinement and restraint.

4th. A disgrace to the community, of which they are capable of becoming an ornament.

The value of the work which these commissions have conferred upon the deaf as well as upon other defective classes, is admirably illustrated by the effective analysis of the census of 1880, made by your honored President, who was asked to do this work *pro bono publico*, because of the special knowledge he had displayed as Secretary of the Board of Charities of the State of Illinois. By means of this, the managers of every institution for the deaf may learn the name, age, residence and condition of every deaf mute in their state, whether educated or uneducated, whether under instruction or not, whether above or below the proper age for admission into school, and whether, as a result of education, they are contributing to the general welfare, and are themselves apparently enjoying the rewards of intelligent labor.

From it we learn that, in the United States, there are in all 33,878 deaf mutes; that of these about 12,000 are of school age, of whom 7,155 are under instruction in 55 institutions, and about 5,000 ought to be in school. It is also estimated that over 15,000 have received an education, and are engaged in the ordinary pursuits of life, and the remainder, between one and two thousand, are adults for whom through the ignorance or willful neglect of those responsible for their well-being, there remains the night of hopelessness till their change comes.

So far as the methods of education and the principles of the appointment of pupils are concerned, the practice

of the state of New York furnishes a good illustration of the natural relation which the department of education and the department of charity respectively hold to an institution for the deaf.

Its six institutions have all been chartered as benevolent societies, the members of which elect the trustees or directors. The grounds have been purchased and the buildings erected and furnished with money presented or collected by the trustees, but must, by law go to the state as its property, if they or the proceeds of their sale are alienated to other purposes. The means of support and instruction are supplied directly or indirectly by the state, at a certain *pro rata* for the exact time each pupil is in the institution. Children between six and twelve years of age are supported by the counties. The theory of this is not education but care, the language of the law referring to them as "those children whose health, morals or comfort may be endangered or not properly cared for." Originally, the indigent only were included, and the supervisors of each county were *compelled* to send to the only institution then existing in the state, every deaf child found in alms houses or public nurseries, a provision which has since been applied to the other institutions subsequently founded.

By a liberal amendment of the law, the word indigent was stricken out, and the richest as well as the poorest, if they can show that outside of an institution the three fundamental requirements cannot properly be secured, have the *right* to send their children at the expense of the county. The selection of these pupils is made by one of the Supervisors of the county, or by the Superintendent of the Poor of the town where the child resides. Therefore, though practically the intellectual education of the child commences the moment he comes to the Institution, the supervision of his condition comes under the State Board of Charities. The great advantage of this early coming of the child to the Institution is, that he may have time to develop slowly and naturally, not in advance of his strength, but surely and thoroughly, a good foundation for the more rapid work that may be expected in the future.

Children and youth between twelve and twenty are supported by the state treasury, They are selected by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who, on finding that their parents, or in the case of orphans, their nearest friends, have been residents of the state for three years, and that they have mental faculties capable of development, issues a warrant for their admis-

sion into that one of the Institutions to which the friends give the preference, and for their continuance therein for the period of five years; which, upon the recommendation of the directors, he increases by reselection to three years longer. Special pupils, who pursue a course of academic study may also be selected for three years in the High Class.

Every three months, a bill is rendered to the State Comptroller for the actual time these pupils have been inmates of the Institution and this bill, before payment, is submitted for verification to the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The usual charge is at the rate of $250 per annum for each pupil.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction is required by law to make every year a thorough examination of the classes, to investigate the system of instruction and to make suggestions to the principal on points that may seem to him of importance. He requires an annual report from the principal, and himself reports to the legislature.

The Board of State Charities makes an annual examination, through one of its members, of the financial condition of each Institution, the industrial training of the pupils, its sanitary condition and regulations, the quality and cost of the food and other materials consumed, and the character of the domestic service — and makes its report.

In addition to this, the Board of Directors, makes an annual report to the legislature and appends thereto the documents necessary to give a complete exhibit of its affairs. The entire number of deaf children thus provided for by the State is about 1,100.

At the American Asylum in Hartford, Conn., and at the Clarke Institution in Northampton, Mass., are received pupils from all the New England States who pay a certain sum per annum for each of their pupils, the selection of pupils and the examination of the Institutions being entrusted to the Boards of Education. There are also municipal day schools at Boston, Mass., Portland, Me., and Providence, R. I. The two Institutions in Pennsylvania at Philadelphia and at Turtle Creek are on a basis similar to those in New York. The Columbia Institution at Washington, D. C., receives pupils whose fathers are employed in the Army and Navy of the United States, and also offers collegiate education to the graduates of all Institutions who are able to pass the necessary examination for admission. Its expenses are defrayed by the general government.

All the other prominent institutions in the United States are the property of the states in which they are located, and are governed by Boards of Trustees appointed by the Governor and approved by the Senate. These trustees make their own regulations for admission, and are aided by such additional supervision over the Institution of which they have charge, as the legislature may prescribe. Separate appropriations are made for buildings and improvements, and for the support of the pupils and for the salaries of employes, without requiring *pro rata* bills.

Five of the Institutions to which allusion has been made, viz.: the Clarke Institution, under Miss H. B. Rogers, the Institution for the Improved Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, under Mr. D. Greenberger, the Horace Mann School under Miss Sarah Fuller, the Portland Day School, under Miss Ellen L. Barton, the Rhode Island School, under Miss Katharine H. Austin, claim articulation and lip reading as the basis of instruction, the pupils being taught to read on the lips and then to speak *viva voce* every word uttered by the teacher, before committing it to writing, and reject the sign language and the manual alphabet. There is also an oral branch of the Pennsylvania Institution in Philadelphia, under Miss Emma Garrett, in which the same system is pursued.

In the Nebraska Institution, at Omaha, the principal, John A. Gillespie, has devoted much attention to the development of hearing by the education of the ear, in cases where, though there is a partial hearing, the degree of deafness is such that there is either no recognition of differences in sound, or if there be, no signification is attached thereunto.

His methods, which include the use of the Rhodes Audiphone and of the ear trumpet, have been marked with such success that the friends of the deaf are watching them with more and more interest, and great credit is due to him for opening this special field for their benefit.

The other Institutions employ what is known as the combined system of teaching language. This is a system which has grown out of an experience of sixty-six years in this country, and is the resultant of a careful comparison of different systems. It is one on which American Instructors are substantially agreed, and is often called the American system, in contradistinction to that which obtains, with similar unanimity, on the Continent of Europe, and is there called the pure oral system. It recognizes the fact that all words are mere

signs to the profoundly deaf, and are representative of ideas and not of sounds — that it is the eye and not the ear through which the mind is reached, and that the language of gestures, which are the natural pictorial expression of the visions in which the deaf mute thinks and to which he invariably resorts when compulsion is not put upon him, is a valuable instrument in his instruction. It also recognizes the fact that alphabetic language of which, when he comes to school, he is entirely ignorant, must be acquired by him in order that he may read understandingly and write idiomatically and correctly. It also recognizes the fact that the manual alphabet is the clearest and least ambiguous instrument of personal intercourse conducted in the language which hearing persons employ, and is the most easily interchangeable with writing. It also recognizes the fact that the fleeting motions of the lips are, for the purposes of instruction, obscure and uncertain.

At the same time it defers to the pardonable desire on the part of parents and friends that the deaf children so dear to their hearts should understand them when they speak to them, and should greet their ears in reply with spoken words.

The first steps in the instruction of the deaf show the correspondence between objects and their names written or spelled with the fingers. Practice with a dozen words will suffice to enable the pupil to form every letter of the manual alphabet and also to write it. The next steps consist in teaching the pupils to obey a direction given in language, and to answer questions concerning it. For instance, the direction "Touch the box" being given, and the pupil having obeyed it, the questions are successively asked, "What did you do?" "Who touched the box?" "What did you touch?" "Did you touch the box?" and the like, and as each is asked the pupil is taught to make a correct reply in writing. Another object, the name of which has been already learned, being introduced, and the same verb being retained, he finds it comparatively easy to answer, with a new element, the same routine of questions. In this way, all the pronouns, the prepositions, the adjectives which express qualities discernible by the senses, the numerals and many nouns, may be easily learned without recourse to signs.

A foundation having thus been established, simple sentences are spelled with the fingers by the teacher, and the pupil who has, meanwhile, in the society of the schoolmate, become an adept in gestural communication,

is required to make a sign for each word as given. If there is a word for which he has no sign it is not an evidence that he does not know the sign, for that, so to speak, belongs to the vocabulary of his mother tongue, but it is an evidence that he does not know the word. When the meaning of this is explained by his teacher, through signs and other illustrations, he is tested as to the meaning of the whole sentence, and if he can give this in ideographic or pictorial signs, there is no question as to his perfect reception of the idea. He is then required to spell and to write the sentence. In this way, by mere dictation and conversation, under appropriate circumstances and in favorable connections, every mood and tense of the verb, every kind of modification by phrases and clauses used adjectively and adverbially, and every form of idiom may be successfully taught, and grammar thoroughly though unconsciously learned.

By this method the pupil becomes so conversant with language that signs become less and less a necessity with him, and words become his medium of thought and expression, and by his knowledge of their significance and use, he is able to gather information from books and newspapers, communicate readily by writing and dactylology, and become a member of the society from which he has been practically excluded, and though still handicapped in many particulars, be a man among men.

It remains to give him the power of recognizing words as spoken, by analyzing the motions of the lips and tongue, and, so far as possible, to utter them with sufficient distinctness of speech to be understood. This is done in the New York Institution by means of a phonic alphabet, which corresponds to the powers of the letters, and by the uttering of which, however slowly, perfect pronunciation is produced. The powers of the consonants p, b, m, f, v, wh and w, the enunciation of which depends upon the position of the lips, are taught first, then t, d, n, l, r, th (aspirated), th (vocal), s and z which depend upon the movement of the tip of the tongue within the open cavity of the mouth, then y, sh, zh, and dzh which depend upon elevating the center of the tongue; and lastly k, g, and ng, ks, and gs, which are made visible by pressing the tongue back from the lower teeth.

The vowels formed in the anterior portion of the mouth, such as ē, ī, ā, ĕ, ă, those formed in the middle as ŭ and er and those formed in the posterior portion such as oō, oŏ, ō, ä, aw and ŏ, and the combinations ū, ī

oi, ou, are then successively taught. These elements of speech are repeated daily till the pupil is able to recognize instantly, any one of them when articulated by the teacher, and to utter them himself with such distinctness as he can command.

When this task is completed the elements are combined in words, at first so very slowly and distinctly that the pupil cannot fail to recognize them, and then with greater and greater rapidity, till the difficult problem of lip reading, without guess work, has been absolutely solved. At present every one of the four hundred pupils now under instruction in the New York Institution, with the exception of two that are blind as well as deaf, is exercised one hour daily in reading and repeating this alphabet and its combinations, and the result is becoming more and more striking. Of course the phonetic spelling to which this alphabet gives rise is very different from that of written English words, and in order to give those pupils who have never heard or spoken, the ability to translate from one form to another, we have found it very convenient to adopt the phonetic alphabet devised by Prof. A. Melville Bell, under the title of Visible Speech, and introduced into this country by his son, A. Graham Bell, whose name has become a household word in connection with the telephone.

The characters of this alphabet correspond exactly to the elements of speech and may be made use of in reproducing every form of articulation, and in absolutely fixing the pronunciation of every word in every language. Easily acquired in connection with lip reading our pupils learn to write in English, spelling the words and sentences given in these characters, and to take pleasure in an exercise which not only taxes their ingenuity, but also increases their familiarity with written language.

There are many other points in connection with the instruction of the deaf and dumb in this country which might not be out of place in a report on a subject which has to deal with peculiarly interesting departments, both of psychology and philology, as well as of moral philosophy, but to touch upon them even lightly would add, perhaps, unjustifiably to the length of a document which, extended though it be, could hardly have been abridged without leaving imperfect impressions with regard to the magnitude and importance of a work which appeals so strongly to the hearts and consciences of those who desire to benefit their fellow men.

ISAAC L. PEET,
For the Committee.

Mr. Amasa Pratt, of Ohio: Having been west of the Rocky Mountains for seven years, and then returning to one of the eastern Institutions, I made it an object, as it was of interest to me, to see what improvement in methods had been made. And while I admit that in some directions there has been some little advance, I find that much the same ideas prevail as when I entered the work, a young man, in the Institution at Philadelphia. The idea seems to be that we are managing a hospital rather than an educational iustitution. Our object is to educate the boys and girls committed to our care and to make them useful and respectable citizens. We have an uphill job. We know nothing of the relations that exist between them and their parents. We take them absolutely knowing nothing of their antecedents. Yet it is a most important subject, and one which ought to be well considered, the education of these children, for we cannot expect them to be self-sustaining and self-supporting without we put in their hands the means whereby to accomplish this end.

Mr. Noyes, of Minnesota: At this hour we are fuller of ideas than of material support. I will, therefore, not detain you long. I am glad that so many gentlemen are interested in the education of the deaf and dumb.

Our institutions, founded, as most of them were, by eastern men and women, of course followed in the old steps to a certain extent; but we have always watched and endeavored to find out improvements. You will excuse me, a western man, for saying this. Our hearts have said that the children of men and women of as much promise as any others in the land, except for the want of hearing, have the right to expect an education. Do not the hearts in this Christian assembly say yea to the proposition that they are entitled to an education?

Unfortunately this meeting is so broad in its scope, that all subjects which should be discussed at length

cannot. We had a committee relating to this subject, of which they unfortunately made me chairman. We found that we had no right to prepare a series of papers relating to this subject, but could only prepare one paper which should briefly set forth the nature of the work going on, and have a short discussion of its merits.

I hope that we will create an interest throughout the whole country in this matter. In the west we are trying to do this, and hope eventually that the whole country will become alive to its importauce.

The Conference then took a recess till afternoon.

TWELFTH SESSION.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, September 28, 1883.

A few minutes were given to miscellaneous discussion as follows:

Mr. SCARBORO, of North Carolina: I omitted to mention our institution for the deaf, dumb and blind. We have such an institution. It has a board of directors, who elect the superintendent, who has the selection of the teachers. It has two departments, one for the whites and one for the colored. The same rules and regulations apply to both. We teach them such industries as they can pursue. This is true both of the white and colored children.

Dr. M. F. COOMES, of Kentucky: We are all aware that a great many people use opium. This is as pernicious a habit as the use of whisky. Some time ago I undertook to make an investigation of the number of opium-eaters here, and was surprised to find such a large number. We have probably one hundred and seventy-five confirmed opium-eaters. This could all be remedied by proper legislation. Here, in Louisville, all that you have to do to get opium is to register your name.

The speaker proposed a plan of legislation against the improper use of opium.

Mr. HUSE, of Illinois: I came here as the representative of the Illinois State Reform School. Our institution is located at Pontiac, about ninety miles from Chicago. We have a farm of two hundred and eighty acres. We had as we supposed very good buildings, until we found ourselves crowded for want of room. Our present number of inmates, who are all boys, is from two hundred

and ninety to three hundred. Our boys all come to us by commitment of court, with sentences varying from one to five years. The youngest that can be committed is ten years and the oldest seventeen. We work our boys three hours in the forenoon and three in the afternoon. They are in school two hours in the morning and two in the evening. Our discipline is very good. We think we have very fine success with our boys. Ninety per cent. of them come out good respectable men. Concerning the other ten per cent. it is a problem what will become of them. We are very crowded now, having only accommodations sufficient for one hundred and fifty; our state legislature has made us an appropriation and we are now erecting additional buildings at a cost of between thirty and forty thousand dollars. Our system is what is called the family and congregate system.

Mr. NELSON, of Missouri: It strikes me that ten hours a day at mental and physical labor is rather a long time.

Dr. HOYT: I think there is one subject upon which the speakers upon reformatories have not touched. There are a great many youths who are arrested for the first time, who might be returned to their homes without ever having entered the doors of the reformatory. I think they would be more reformed by the mere fact of arrest, trial and conviction than by passing through the reform school.

Mr. BAXTER, of Michigan: Mr. Hoyt's suggestion is carried out largely in our State. No child is permitted to be sent to the reform school, until all the facts and circumstances of his case have been carefully inquired into. Fifty per cent. of them are turned back to their homes. They are put under suspended sentences.

Mr. FAIRBANK, of Vermont: In our State there has been a recent requirement of this kind. All children are placed on probation. They are not regularly committed

to the reform school until we inquire into their previous condition.

The discussion on the education of the deaf and dumb was then continued as follows:

Mr. J. A. GILLESPIE, of Nebraska: In reference to my experiments in cultivating the dormant hearing of the semi-deaf, in the Nebraska Institute, to which reference was made by Dr. Peet, of New York, in his admirable and exhaustive paper, I would say, that the cultivation of the dormant hearing of the semi-deaf has been a favorite theory with me for a number of years.

During the last four years I have experimented considerably with the audiphone. My first class consisted mostly of the older semi-deaf children. I began with simple vowel sounds, made in a loud tone of voice; then advanced to words and sentences.

At the end of three months drill, of from half an hour to an hour each day, this class was enabled to recognize a large number of sentences across the room.

Two years ago I organized another class consisting of small semi-deaf children, and gave them a similar course of training. The results in this case were even more satisfactory.

These experiments convinced me that the dormant sense of hearing remaining to this class of children could be cultivated, developed and utilized in their education.

With this end in view, I organized a class of young children, a year ago, whose education should be carried on in this way.

My plan was to dispense with the use of signs and the manual alphabet as much as possible, and use strictly oral methods.

All instruction possible to be directed to the hearing with the view to its development.

The class was put in charge of Miss McCowen who faithfully carried out these plans and directions.

The success of the class was all that could be desired. At the end of the term they had command of a vocabulary of three hundred words which they could use readily, and some members had command of even more.

This fall I have two classes in sucessful operation on this plan.

My opinion is that from twelve per cent. to fifteen per cent. of the whole number of so-called deaf and dumb could be taught in this way, and a large majority of those graduated as hard of hearing, speaking people, instead of as deaf mutes.

This subject is worthy of the best thought and attention of the profession, and of benevolent and scientific men, and it affords me no little satisfaction to know that it is receiving the same.

Miss MARY MCCOWEN: I have two of the little children here who were taught in our school and if any of the Conference wish to try them I would be glad to have them do so.

DR. COOMES, of Kentucky: Hearing is essentially a disease of the ear. The nerves that should convey the sound to the brain are not performing their proper functions when a person is deaf. Now those sound waves may be transmitted by the audiphone through the teeth. I would like to call Mr. Gillespie's attention to a little instrument which has lately been brought out with which you can tell to what extent the organs of the ear are impaired. It would be a help in his school to know exactly what condition his children's ears were in.

J. L. NOYES, of Minnesota: Deaf mutes have as much if not more right to an education at public expense as any other children. With an education they become producers, without it, consumers. Minnesota graduates

represent teachers, mechanics, an editor, a bank clerk and other important vocations.

The following Committee Report was then presented by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PREVENTIVE MEDICAL CHARITIES.

In presenting a report on the subject of Preventive Medical Charities, the committee wish to premise that the subject is one, which has apparently received but little careful study.

We have found little discriminating discussion of the questions raised by the existence of Medical Charities; trustworthy statistical information upon their relations to pauperism is not abundant, and what we have has all been gathered during very recent years. For these reasons we cannot hope to lay before the Conference a comprehensive report, but can only give to the main questions involved a brief consideration, admitting that the data at our command are not sufficient for a full discussion of the subject.

Medical Charities, as the terms are usually employed, arrange themselves in two groups: (1) those supported by public taxation, and (2) those maintained by private enterprise.

Among tax-supported institutions, are included those directly controlled by the state, the county, and the municipality, and those which, while drawing their support from the public treasury, are under the management of independent corporations. Throughout the United States, wherever the influence of the English poor-law system has been felt, there exist under various names — Almshouses, Town Hospitals, County Homes, City Infirmaries — tax-supported institutions for the care of the indigent sick. For admission to these institutions a settlement within a prescribed district is commonly required, and in some states there must be proof of destitution, but the requirements go no further than these.

To put the almost universal practice into the form of a theorem, it may be said, *the community is bound to support all residents who are sick and poor.*

Tried by any of the commonly received theories of the functions of civil government, and especially such of those theories as are applicable to democratic institu-

tions, this proposition is shown to be false. Republican government is not paternal and should not be.

It is not its business to provide for its citizens, but only to see that others do not interfere with them while they are providing for themselves; in short, its business is the protection of society by the prevention of force and fraud. To protect society, the State maintains its military and civil police on land and sea, and supports a system of free schools for its children. To protect society it establishes its courts, erects its prisons, and builds its asylums for the insane. To protect society is the function of the State, and when its powers are exercised in acts not necessary for the accomplishment of this purpose, it transcends its bounds, and unjustly invades the province of the church, the family, or the individual. It does not seem possible to justify governmental provision for the sick poor by any fair deduction from the doctrine that it is the duty of the State to protect its citizens from force and fraud. The sick are not in the same category as the insane, who are a menace to the security of the community when permitted to go at large. It will not be urged that the sick, except those suffering with contagious diseases, in any similar way endanger society. The prompt seclusion of those afflicted with contagious diseases is a duty of the State, and a part of its police powers; but the providing of hospitals for these cannot justify the creation of tax-supported institutions for the care of those afflicted with diseases, which are not pestilential. What is wrong in principle cannot be right in practice, and the results of our system of demanding from the public treasury the funds to support those, whose only claim upon the public is their misfortune, has been a fruitful source of degradation and corruption. It has assured the idle and profligate, that no matter how vicious their lives, no matter how continuously their practices violate every law of health and morals, they have, when overtaken by the consequences of their vices, the ultimate right to maintenance, paid for by forced contributions from their more thrifty neighbors. In this it has discriminated in favor of the worse elements of society against the better. Besides this, the system has contributed not a little to the widespread political corruption, which is the reproach of our country. The official positions in county almshouses and city hospitals have far too often been the last roosting place for foul political buzzards, who have been driven from more conspicuous public places to perch at last among the outcasts and gorge a little longer on the spoils of office.

The shameful exposures at the Blockley Almshouse, paralleled as they have been in other States as well as Pennsylvania, teach a lesson which should not soon be forgotten.

And yet this system has been advocated in the name of charity, and the multiplication of our pauper corrals has been pointed to with pride as an evidence of our civilization.

Alas! how we are befooled by names!

What charity is there in a board of aldermen voting money from the public treasury to maintain great pauper houses, avowedly controlled by ignorant partizan henchmen, who must be provided for, and who will not be tolerated by any class less helpless and degraded than the paupers? Spasmodic reform may temporarily lessen the evil. Thorough inspection by intelligent State Boards and Charities Aid Associations may correct some of the worst abuses; but the source of the mischief remains.

Professor Thompson has justly said: "'The best reform of the almshouse would be its abolition."

Is it, then, proposed that no provision shall be made for the unfortunate, for the sick and injured among the destitute poor? By no means. Humane sentiment, and something higher than humane sentiment, demand that we shall succor the miserable; that whether he be a virtuous man overtaken by misfortune, or a vicious man reaping the rewards of a debauched life, we shall remember that he is our brother, and strive with purse and brain and heart to lift him out of his misery into health, and comfort, and independence. The desert chant of the Musselman conforms to our creed no less than his —

> "Whoever thou art whose need is great,
> In the name of God, the compassionate,
> And the merciful One,
> For Thee I wait."

The obligation to assist the unfortunate is sacred. It must not be ignored; but it should be placed where it belongs, upon the church, and upon benevolent individuals and voluntary associations of benevolent individuals.

There exists no community in the United States where there is not enough money in the hands of benevolent citizens, and enough philanthropy in their hearts, to care for all the indigent sick within its bounds; and this beneficence can provide for them far more wisely, far more honestly, than any machinery which the civil government can devise.

The failure of the poor-law system, particularly in great population centres, is admitted by the majority of those who have carefully studied the question; but many, who fully recognize this, fear to take the bold step of abolishing it.

The institutions drawing their support from the public treasury, but controlled by private corporations, have come into existence as a measure of compromise. In the city of New York, this scheme has had an ample development. Its results were graphically portrayed by Mrs. Lowell at the Boston meeting of this Conference.

In most instances the management of these Institutions has been better than that of those wholly given over to political control; but the pernicious factor, public money, not the gift of benevolence, but the forced levy of the tax-gatherer, has worked everywhere to vitiate the results of their operation. It is not to them, or any similar makeshift, that we must look for the solution of the great problem, how to assist the unfortunate without degrading the recipients of our bounty and discriminating against the manly, independent poor, who, though worn by toil and pinched by penury, scorn to ask for help.

If this solution is to be found anywhere, it is in private charity. Hospitals and dispensaries founded by benevolent individuals and voluntary associations, whose support comes from the contributions of those who believe in them, those who are actuated by philanthropic motives, strong enough to reach into their pockets.

It is certainly reasonable to suppose that a management by such men will be a fairly clean and judicious management; that the officials who conduct them, will be chosen for their character and expert knowledge; and that their whole moral atmosphere will be far purer than the dank miasm of partizan almshouses.

The *a priori* argument is confirmed by experience. It is a rare thing for corruption to be charged against the officials of the Hospitals maintained by private benevolence. The best citizens participate in their management; their officials hold posts of honor, and often retain them for a score of years. In them, industry, experience, and fidelity have, at least, some fair prospect of reward.

More important, however, than these considerations, is the effect produced upon the character of the patients, who receive free hospital treatment. When it is given in institutions such as have been described, it is accepted as a gift, winning gratitude in return; but the benefac-

tions, such as they are, of the county or municipality are seized as a right. Convalescents from really charitable hospitals, often view the benefits they have received in their true light, as the gifts of sympathetic hearts, and testify their appreciation not only by words, but deeds. No such result is produced by public charity. If any almshouse steward has ever seen a departing patient grateful to the institution that has sheltered him, the man ought to be advertised as a curiosity.

It is, then, to the hospitals sustained by private benevolence, that we must look for the judicious care of the sick poor of the community. A practical question arises — have they the resources adequate to this work? In some places they have. Philadelphia is an illustration of this. In that city there is an almshouse hospital with an average of about eight hundred (800) inmates, and there are twenty hospitals which are maintained without municipal aid. These twenty hospitals have a capacity for fourteen hundred and sixty-three (1,463) patients, and the total number of free beds occupied, was, on a recent date, reported as eight hundred and thirty-four (834). There are thus six hundred and twenty-nine (629) vacancies now existing, which could be filled with free patients, if the hospitals recieved a very moderate addition to their operating funds, an addition, not difficult to procure, were public attention directed to the matter. By this means, all the sick inmates of the Almshouse, except one hundred and seventy-one (171) could be at once provided for, without any expenditure for new buildings or apparatus. This reduces the problem to the simple question of providing for less than two hundred (200) patients in a city of nearly a million inhabitants. Private benevolence is abundantly sufficient to promptly answer this demand. It must be added, that in the opinion of some of those best qualified to judge, the exercise of a proper discrimination in the admission of patients (for free treatment should be given to those, and only those, who are unable to pay) would render the fourteen hundred and sixty-three (1,463) hospital beds now provided entirely adequate to the needs of the community. In some localities, a change so radical must be made more gradually; but the sooner it is begun the better. Appropriations to almshouses should be steadily diminished, and the work of caring for the sick poor, more and more, turned over to the really benevolent institutions, which stand ready to undertake it, until at last they have assumed it altogether.

Even with existing circumstances, the medical charities can do much to prevent the growth of pauperism. A large number of acute cases of disease would, but for their intervention, become chronic and permanently disabling. Many families on the verge of pauperism, when even temporarily relieved of the expense incident to the care of the sick, are enabled to regain independence, and the prompt and efficient surgical aid given to the injured has many a time saved not only the limb but the character; for in a large proportion of cases, to be a cripple means to be a pauper.

The preventive value of the hospitals would be much greater, if the ordinary therapeutic treatment were supplemented by some such provision for convalescents, as has been popularized in England during the past few years. In London patients discharged from the hospitals, but not yet strong enough to labor, are sent to healthful localities in the country, where they remain under medical supervision, until fully restored. The expenses incurred are met wholly by private charity. Another very important means by which the medical charities may contribute to the prevention of pauperism, is by the dissemination of information upon sanitary subjects, particularly the care of infants. A liberal distribution of printed matter conveying, in the plainest and simplest words, the more important principles of personal and domestic hygiene, supplemented by personal instruction to those applying at the dispensaries, has been found to accomplish much in the direction of preserving health, and improving the habits of the classes most exposed to disease.

Finally, if the best results are to be attained, there must be among those who conduct medical charities careful study and frequent conference. No one institution has arrived at such perfection, that it may not improve its methods, by comparing them with the work of others, in the same field. It is coming to be recognized, that there is a science of charity, and when that science takes its place among the studies to which the best minds devote their noblest powers, we may hope to see as great and beneficent a revolution in our treatment of poverty, as physical science has wrought in our relation to inanimate nature.

JAS. W. WALK, M. D.,
Chairman.

The following paper, by John B. Pine, of New York, was read in his absence by Judge E. C. Kincaid.

FIRST AID TO THE INJURED.

BY JOHN B. PINE.

Upon the battlefields of the Franco-Prussian war, the red cross gained for itself a significance possessed by no other emblem. To all, friend and foe alike, it indicated the power which saves. Whether borne by the Sister of Charity, coming like an angel with healing in his wings, or the surgeon, or the trained ambulance assistant, it carried hope to the wounded and dying, and the conviction that compassionate assistance was near. Of that heroic army of men and women who gained for the red cross its glorious distinction, no corps rendered more faithful service, nor did any do more to save life and to mitigate suffering than the St. John's Ambulance Association of England. The lineal descendant, as it may be called, of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, it nobly sustained the traditions of its order, once so famous for deeds of mercy as well as of chivalry; and the spirit of the old knights was revived in many a healing touch upon the fields of Sedan and beneath the walls of Metz. With the capitulation of Paris the exigency which necessitated the formation of the Association ceased, and the services of its members were no longer required abroad; but, returning to England, they found an ample field for work at home, which at once enlisted their energies. Among the results which they have accomplished are the establishment of the ambulance system in cities, and the founding of cottage hospitals in the smaller towns. The knowledge gained by the members of the association in caring for the wounded during the continuance of the war was found, in times of peace, to be so frequently available in cases of accident, as to suggest the idea of giving instruction to all classes in the preliminary treatment of the sick and injured.

In 1877 the Association, with the co-operation of some of the most eminent physicians and surgeons, established courses of lectures. The same ignorance as to how a fractured limb should be handled, how bleeding from a dangerous wound should be stopped, how an apparently drowned person should be treated, prevailed at that time in England, as it does in America at present. It was to essen this ignorance and to replace it with an elemen-

tary knowledge of surgical treatment that the Association's lectures were devised. A syllabus of instruction was prepared, and classes were formed. The immediate and general response with which the Association's offer was met, proved how thoroughly the need for instruction in "First Aid" was appreciated; and the very large number of pupils who have since then attended the lectures is the best evidence of the eagerness with which the opportunity for gaining such instruction was received. The classes have been so numerous and of so varied a character as to include all ranks, from the princess Christian, who has attended the Association's lectures and obtained a certificate after passing the prescribed examination, to colliers and working women. Classes have been formed among the London policemen and firemen, in the war office, the Indian office, the admiralty, the post office, the custom house, among the county constabulary, borough police and fire brigades; in the East and the West India and the Surrey docks; among the militia, and among many other organizations. The extent of the Association's work is demonstrated by the fact that upwards of forty thousand pupils have obtained the "First Aid" certificates after passing the requisite examination. At a public meeting held at the Guild-Hall in London, on the 30th of June last, certificates were presented to some six hundred men and women, pupils in a single district, by his Royal Highness, the Duke of Connaught, who commented in eulogistic terms upon the great practical value of the instruction given by the Association. It is a legitimate inference that the good resulting from such general dissemination of the principles of "First Aid to the Injured," must necessarily be enormous; and that such is actually the fact is more than proved by the Association's records showing the relief rendered by its pupils. These records abound in instances of "First Aid," such as the placing of a broken leg in extemporized splints, made of an umbrella or cane, and bandaged with a handkerchief; of a hemorrhage stopped by the pressure of a finger, or a pebble and a twisted handkerchief; of an apparently drowned child resuscitated. In many cases the relief has been rendered by fellow workmen, or by a policeman or fireman, or by others who, before receiving the Association's instructions were absolutely incompetent to give such assistance. The feasibility of the scheme being thus demonstrated in England, it is not remarkable that it should have been taken up in other countries. It was introduced into Germany by Dr. Friedrich Esmarch, an

eminent surgeon, who prepared a hand book on "First Aid to the Injured," and was instrumental in organizing the first "Samariter-Verein," or Samaritan Society, which has an object similar to that of the St. John's Ambulance Association. Since the formation of this society at Kiel in 1882, others of a like character have been formed in various parts of Germany, and valuable services have already been rendered by "First Aid" pupils. The idea has also been introduced in France and India, and during the last year the hand-book of "First Aid" has been translated into the Russian language.

A beneficent undertaking, so signally successful abroad, could not long escape the notice of philanthropists in this country. A paper on "First Aid," prepared by Mr. John Paton, who had made himself familiar with the workings of the English Association, brought the subject to the attention of the State Charities Aid Association of New York; and in January, 1882, a committee, under the chairmanship of General George B. McClellan was appointed by that body to establish a course of instruction in "First Aid," and to form classes in New York. The project, from its very inception, was enthusiastically received, and was the subject of frequent and extended mention in the newspapers. So numerous were the applicants for instruction, and so rapidly were classes formed, that had it not been for the cordial and active assistance of the medical profession it would have been impossible to meet the demand for lectures. During the first six months after the movement was begun in New York, thirty-two classes, composed of five hundred and forty men and women, received instruction. In addition, several classes which were formed at Orange and at New Brunswick were largely attended. In some of these classes which were attended by ladies and gentlemen a fee was charged; but the majority were free, and were made up of working-men and working-women.

During the winter of 1882–1883 instruction was given on a still more extended scale in New York; thirty-seven classes, composed of nine hundred and eighty-nine pupils, being formed. About one-fourth of these were paying classes, the remainder being free. Nineteen were made up of women, ladies, working-women, teachers and students; eighteen were composed of men, the great majority of these being working-men. Two classes of policemen received the instruction which is to be given to the whole force; while all the employes of the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad in

the Grand Central Depot, as well as the men employed in the Hoe Printing Press Works, the DeLamater Iron Works and other factories, were trained to render prompt relief to the injuries incident to their several occupations. Outside of New York, also, a lively interest in "First Aid" was manifested from the very first; and during the past winter this interest has taken the shape of "Emergency Lectures" in Boston and of a movement, in Philadelphia, to establish courses of "First Aid" instruction by the Society for Organizing Charity in that city. The Boston lectures have been largely attended, and have taken so strong a hold as to place their continuance beyond all doubt; and a meeting called by the Philadelphia Society in April last, for the purpose of making "First Aid" more generally understood, resulted in the most emphatic expression of public approval which "First Aid" has yet received in this country. The meeting, which was held at the Academy of Music, was attended by the heads of the police department, by the directors and physicians of five hospitals, and by many prominent citizens. The practical value of "First Aid" instruction was forcibly presented to the meeting by the records of the police, who for a few months previously had been attending the lectures of Dr. J. William White, of the University of Pennsylvania. Extracts from these records were published in the daily papers, and regarded as the result of a course of instruction covering but a brief period, they present an astounding mass of testimony as to the amount of suffering which may be averted and the number of lives which may be saved by a knowledge of a few of the simplest and most elementary principles of surgical treatment.

In February, 1883, the Committee of the State Charities Aid Association for the better carrying on of its work, and particularly with a view to the wider dissemination of "First Aid," organized "The Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured," which is composed of a central body in New York City and of branches throughout the country, each branch being represented in the General Center. It is the business of the General Center to organize branch centers in the larger towns and cities, and detached classes in smaller places, to provide a syllabus of instruction, a code of rules for lectures, to issue certificates and to exercise a general supervision and control over the affairs of the Society. Each Branch provides its own lecturers, and the means for its support, and conducts its own management, subject

only to such rules as are necessary to secure uniformity of action. By this system of organization the Society obtains that united action which is best calculated to promote its object, and at the same time each Branch preserves its independence. Certificates are issued by the Society through the General Center, which also furnishes the Branches with circulars containing the syllabus of instruction, printed rules for lectures and lecturers, rules and blank reports for superintendents of classes, copies of the Constitution and By-Laws, registers for classes and for the names of applicants, and also, at cost price, with the "Handbook of Instruction in First Aid to the Injured," which has been issued by the Society; and on similar terms, with the necessary appliances.

The course of instruction followed by the Society, which is practically identical with that of the St. John's Ambulance Association, has been approved by many distinguished physicians and surgeons in this country and abroad, and has been shown by actual trial, during several years among all clases of people, to be thoroughly well adapted to accomplish the purpose for which it is intended. It consists of five lectures, of which the following is an outline:

LECTURE No. 1.— On the structure and more important functions of the human body; giving, without teaching names, a brief description of the bones, muscles, veins and arteries, and points where the circulation may be controlled by digital pressure; the pulse, respiration and temperature of the child and the adult; concluding with practical instruction on the use and application of triangular bandages.

LECTURE No. 2.— On Hemorrhage; the various extemporary means of arresting it; the application of the improvised tourniquet; the dressing of wounds; with practical instruction in bandaging.

LECTURE No. 3.— On the immediate treatment of the apparently drowned or otherwise suffocated; burns, scalds, frozen limbs, and bites of rabid animals; the signs of fracture and "First Aid" to be rendered in such cases, with illustrations and instruction on the application of splints and other restraining apparatus.

LECTURE No. 4.— On "First Aid" to those suffering from shock, collapse, fainting, heat-stroke, and poisons; to those stunned, to the apoplectic, inebriated, and epileptic.

LECTURE No. 5.— (For men). On the improvised method of lifting and conveying the sick or injured on stretchers; and the conveyance of such by rail or cart.

LECTURE No. 5.— (For women). On nursing; warming and ventilating the sick chamber; the use of disinfectants, tending and observing the sick, the use of the thermometer, making poultices, changing sheets, making the bed for the sick, lifting helpless patients, and feeding the sick.

Each lecture after the first commences with a review of that preceding it, and the final lecture concludes with a resumé of the course, preparatory to the examination which each pupil is expected to pass. A close observance is had to the terms of the syllabus, but each lecturer gives special prominence to the treatment of those injuries to which the members of his class, or those people among whom they live, are particularly liable from the nature of the locality or their occupation. Clearness, simplicity, and a careful avoidance of technical terms are the aim of the lecturer, and among classes composed of working people great allowance is made for their entire ignorance of everything relating to medical science. A subject, generally a boy fourteen or fifteen years old, is present at each lecture, and every statement, so far as possible is illustrated. The actual performance by members of the class of artificial respiration, bandaging, adjusting of splints and the improvised tourniquet, compressing the arteries, changing sheets, making poultices, lifting and placing a subject upon a stretcher, forms a part of the course, and pupils are taught to extemporize splints, stretchers, etc., when proper appliances cannot be had. An hour and a half is the usual time for each lecture, but this is often extended to enable the lecturer to further explain the use of appliances, and to give more particular instruction in bandaging and the use of splints. In order that each pupil may receive as much of the lecturer's attention as is necessary to secure an entire comprehension of the lectures, the classes are limited to thirty pupils each, as a larger number cannot be conveniently and thoroughly instructed at one time. The classes are of two kinds, pay and free; by far the larger proportion being free. The usual charge in the pay classes is three dollars for a course ticket.

The foregoing statement serving to explain the object, plan of work and system of instruction of this Society, and the recognized importance and value of "First Aid," presents the strongest argument on the Society's behalf. Even to the casual reader of the daily newspaper, the record of accidents to life and limb must present a pitiful spectacle; and when it is remembered how, in most

cases, the pain and suffering incident to such accidents are largely increased by ignorance and inability to render prompt relief, any means by which such unnecessary suffering can be alleviated must be regarded as most humane. The Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured has been organized with this end in view, and it seeks to accomplish its purpose by diffusing general information as to the preliminary treatment of the sick and injured among all classes of society. The lectures are open to all, but the working people, especially such as live in the great railroad, mining and manufacturing centres, are those whom the Society most desires to reach, for they, being most exposed to accidents and most ignorant of how to treat them, are most benefited by "First Aid" instruction. It should be clearly understood, however, that there is no intention on the part of the Society to encroach upon the sphere of the medical profession. Its object is not to rival, but to aid the physician or surgeon, and the instruction given by the Society is intended to do no more than qualify the pupil to adopt such remedial measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, and to afford some knowledge of nursing and the laws of health. The Society's object is of the most practical character. It teaches what is to be done in emergencies, when there are no proper appliances at hand: when a splint, or bandage, or tourniquet must be extemporized; when we must either do something instantly, or stand helplessly by and see a man suffer the agony of a broken limb, or suffocate, or bleed to death, simply because we do not know how to help him. When the pressure of a finger, properly applied for a few moments, might save a man's life, he is allowed to die, because nobody happens to be near who knows where to place that finger.

It is to afford every one the knowledge of such matters as these, knowledge simple in itself, but often involving a question of life and death, that this Society has been formed to give instruction in "First Aid to the Injured."

The following paper was then presented by Dr. R. S. Dewey, Superintendent of the Eastern Illinois Hospital for the Insane, at Kankakee:

CONGREGATE AND SEGREGATE BUILDINGS FOR THE INSANE.

BY DR. R. S. DEWEY.

In the following pages I have sought, without entering into consideration of details in building plans, to discuss the general questions involved in the two systems of construction known as "congregate" and "segregate." These two contrasted types are characterized on the one hand by concentration and on the other by separation of the different parts of an institution, and of the different classes of patients.

Each style has its advantages, and the congregate style has the great advantage of mainly occupying the field at the present time, having met with general approval and adoption in the United States, and being considered, if I may so speak, "orthodox," while a suspicion of "heterodoxy" attaches to the idea of segregated construction in the minds of many whose opinions are entitled to weight.

Each style of construction, too, has its disadvantages, and it will appear from what is here advanced, that in the opinion of the writer, the disadvantages of the congregate and the advantages of the segregate system are each likely to become more apparent as time goes on, new conditions are encountered, new questions press for solution, and wider experience is obtained in the vast and complicated problems involved in the management of the insane — for segregated styles of construction, while they offer in some directions greater difficulties, present compensating advantages in allowing of closer adaptations and wider variations to meet the multiplicity of wants and conditions, while the evils of scattering buildings and patients admit of being surmounted to a great extent by the newer appliances of inter-communication and oversight which the inventive genius of the day is developing, and many of these evils are proven by experience to have been over-rated.

The congregate system represents one view of the insane, the segregate system another; the former in effect treats the insane as all needing the same or very similar surroundings; all equally in need of closest seclusion and confinement; all requiring uniform regimen, regulations and restrictions. The latter inquires after the individual and is solicitous to procure for every patient each and all of the privileges he is capable of enjoying with safety, and of removing none of the prerogatives of sanity

which it is not clearly proven the condition of the individual precludes.

Neither of these ideas can be logically carried out to its absolute limits. In each of them there is good and truth embraced, and no institution exists or could exist which would exemplify fully the complete supremacy of either idea, but as in other human affairs, a golden mean is to be sought, established and put into practical execution.

The reader is doubtless familiar with the main characteristics of each style, the congregate, corridor, or Kirkbride construction as represented by most of the hospitals and asylums for insane in this country; the center building with its wings branching to right and left for each sex, in sections and cross sections, constituting practically one mass or close group of buildings so arranged that all the occupants are to all intents under the same roof, and on the other hand the segregation or scattering of buildings whether, as in the "pavilion" plan all connected by one common passage way, or as in the "block" plan having either the corridor arrangement of wards or day rooms and dormitories, but consisting of larger or smaller groups of separate wards or buildings more or less complete in themselves; or again as illustrated in the detached ward or popularly named "cottage" plan where the buildings are nearly as possible like an ordinary house, vary among themselves, are quite distinct from each other, often widely separated in their location and arranged in a manner corresponding more to the domestic idea of architecture.

Of these two systems, the former or "Kirkoride" has heretofore very largely met with favor, and is for certain purposes, perhaps, the best possible form of building, but there has been an increasing tendency in the past few years to separate in disconnected or detached buildings, the different parts of the asylum, and especially to provide for different classes of the insane or forms and degrees of insanity, some mode of construction varying according to the condition and needs of each. These opposite tendencies towards congregate and segregate forms may each be taken to represent an essential element, like the centripetal and centrifugal elements in nature, and are probably both required for the attainment of a final stable equilibrium, though at times acting with disturbing force; and just as changes and collisions continue in the natural world while gravity through the agency of these two forces adjusts the relations of matter; even so in the realm of mind where the progressive and conservative forces are perpetually ta

work each with its own defects and excellencies; the establishment of truth is attained through debate, contest and the friction of opposing ideas which in their encounter each destroy the errors of the other, while all that either possesses of permanence and excellence remains unharmed.

In the comparison adopted centripetal clearly stands for "congregate" and centrifugal for "segregate," and as gravity controls the motions of atoms and worlds, so will the certain supremacy of enlightened charity determine the dominion of each of these two principles in the final development of the best attainable asylum.

The origin of this tendency to the breaking up of institutions for the insane into more various parts, is in my opinion a reaction against the undue ignoring in times past of their most important function, viz. close adaptation to the needs of the inmates not only in the buildings themselves but in the organization and administration of the asylum; and in speaking of the needs of inmates being ignored, I do not refer to an intentional denial of those needs, but rather to the fact that the complexity, diversity, and even contrariety of the requirements was so great, and the public lack of knowledge and apathy so profound, that a quarter of a century of able and earnest endeavor is but just bringing in the dawn of a happier day for the victims of insanity.

The original ruling motive in establishing institutions for the insane was not so much benevolence toward the unfortunate, as simply a desire for relief from a burden and a hindrance to public comfort or prosperity. Here were masses of persons presenting themselves incapable of self-care or maintenance, many of them dangerous, most of them forbidding and fearful in their aspect, supposed to be quite hopelessly afflicted; even at one time generally regarded as under the possession of the devil. Some sort of a roof must be provided for them, not only to shelter, but to securely confine, and this must be found with as little attended trouble and expense as possible. It was scarcely suspected that the condition of the insane could be improved and they were only exceptionally and rarely thought of with any solicitude; not that there were not always here and there philanthropic souls that remembered these outcast and oppressed ones "as bound with them," but in general they were regarded as beyond the reach of any redeeming influence, hardly possessing the attributes of humanity, and might with one voice have spoken in the words of Shylock to his adversaries: "Have we not eyes,

hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions? Are we not fed with the same food? Warmed and cooled by the same winter and summer? If you tickle us do we not laugh? If you poison us do we not die? If you wrong us shall we not revenge?" This fact of the great general similarity and correspondence, in *spite* of insanity, between sane and insane has never been sufficiently appreciated. The almost universal notion that insanity *reverses* all the conditions of sanity instead of simply modifying or holding in abeyance natural activities, has been more mischievous for its effect on progress and improvement in the management of the insane than any other one cause. It has naturally led to a *reversal* of the ordinary conditions of life, both in buildings and administration of institutions, whereas the accumulation of experience with the insane tends to show that, with certain restrictions and precautionary measures, all that the majority, especially of the chronic insane require, is an abode as near the domestic ideal as circumstances will allow. But in the first establishment of Hospitals for Insane, or "mad houses," as they were called, no special obligation to these unfortunates was thought of. It was simply attempted to be rid of them as easily as possible. Hence institutions for the insane sprung up as a part of the machinery of the state for relieving a public need.

The buildings were made massive and stately from an external point of view as became the dignity of the State and befitted the honest pride of the people and the locality where they were erected. The external features were unfortunately more thought of frequently than the comfort or welfare of those who came to occupy the buildings. The "centripetal" tendency predominated as the center buildings put up usually amply illustrated, and not all the simplicity and frugality that the officers who occupied them could show, would serve to remove in the public mind at times the impression that their mode of life was lordly and extravagant, from the mere effect of the outward stateliness and elegance of their abode.

The "running" of this part of the machinery of the State was regarded in the same light as the running of the other machines, only of less consequence, and of course it was to be expected that a "crazy" machine would be more or less "deranged" in its operations. Thus the little and base ambitions of those who were capable of seeking emolument or profit in the places that an asylum affords, or of playing the political game of bargain and sale upon so poor a commodity as the

madness of their fellows, were allowed to feed upon misfortunes which were regarded with indifference and believed to be incapable of alleviation.

Need it be said that under conditions such as this, the places of confinement for the insane were at first destitute of almost every requisite for proper care and burdened with every hindrance to just and skillful treatment, to say nothing of the absence of sympathy and all the more kindly and refining influences. Is it not plain that the mutual action and reaction between the miserable insane so miserably kept and their miserable keepers must have been destructive to every better feeling!

But the gradual spread of enlightenment and humanity, of

"Sweeter manners, purer laws,"

and the recognition of insanity as a disease and a misfortune simply, led to the consideration of individual nature and necessities, and to a demand for the special environment and accommodation, appropriate in every given case. It was gradually seen and has been coming continually into clearer view, that the evil conditions existing among the insane in institutions were in part the outcome of evil management and not necessarily a part of insanity. The long overlooked distinction began to be insisted on between institutions existing only for the public accommodation or convenience of free humanity, or to exemplify the glory and supremacy of the State; and institutions which were administered as places of confinement and control for human beings who yet had no necessary voice in the management, and moreover from no fault of their own, were the forced inmates — dead furthermore, in the eye of the law, and bereft by disease in a greater or less measure of their power to act or judge rationally. It came at last to be understood that the most radical difference existed between the administration of an institution for the insane and that of any other institution whatever; that difference consisting in the obligation and necessity of dealing justly and humanely with persons held and controlled without their own consent, whose legal rights and reasoning power at the same time were dethroned by disease; and hence in the construction a more simple, plain and substantial architecture has been gradually sought and introduced, and in the administration more emphasis has been given to that which is the sole cause of the existence of the institution, viz., the best care of the patients.

Partly in consequence of the failure to reach and enforce the above principle, partly from other causes, these

institutions began to give trouble and have continued to give trouble up to the present time, though a series of most important and beneficent changes have been gradually wrought out, notably the assumption of the care of all the insane by the state, and the remarkable advances made under the direction of ably philanthropic medical men in curative treatment, sanitary regulation, and wise and humane administration, yet trouble has continued to accompany the management and care of the insane. Scarcely a single one of the Institutions has escaped. Now in one form, now in another, attacks have been made, accusations have been brought, storms of a personal or public indignation have raged, and though often shamefully unjust, these various charges have found a ready echo and a hearty sympathy among the masses of the people, who, on the one hand profoundly ignorant and even indifferent to the condition of the insane, yet on the other, were for causes that cannot be entered into in the limits of this paper, even full of prejudice against institutions, and easily affected by sensational and often baseless stories. Thus asylums and the men concerned in their management, have suffered both justly and unjustly. But all the turmoil raised and the contumely heaped upon our asylums from good and from evil motives, have tended to bring into prominence *one point*, viz.: that the condition and needs of the individual inmate were worthy of a better and fuller recognition than it had yet been possible to give them, and the law of humanity, so far as these accusations had any measure of truth, was newly enforced and illustrated which ordains that what belongs to the individual man or to the class of men (however seemingly impotent in themselves and incapable of asserting their rights), shall never be ignored, never taken away by other men, or by the state itself, either through omission or commission, without disaster reacting upon the authors of the wrong, and often blindly also upon all who happen to stand in the path of the resistless process of readjustment.

Through the above means as much as any other, the "centrifugal" or "segregating" tendency grew up. It represents among other things the view that every individual inmate of any public institution is entitled to be considered upon his or her merits in all that affects the person, and it is this which brings into sharp prominence the difference between the two principles of congregation and segregation, of individuality and (if I may coin a word) institutionality — and the greatest problems

that public charity presents to-day relate to the decision of the question between the personal needs of the inmate and the harmonious, efficient and economical working of the institution as a whole.

In the time when the insane were by the general public view regarded with equal ignorance and aversion, it was scarcely thought of or recognized that difference existed among them. They were all considered equally unsafe, perverted in every thought and feeling, incapable of natural activity in any direction. Hence the requirements to be met by an institution in its buildings, arrangements and administration, must be all nearly or quite the reverse of what ordinary, sane humanity requires and they would be the *same for all.* A close similarity was supposed to characterize all the insane and they were all considered, for all practical purposes, equally distinct from the rest of mankind and totally "upside down" in their entire make-up. Natural "feelings, senses, affections, passions," were scarcely credited to them, and even to-day there are few, except those who give special attention to the subject or are much in contact with the insane, who have any realization how closely the vast majority of them resemble the sane portion of the race in all that pertains to ordinary every day life, and except for some deficiency or some perversion of a limited mental area, are influenced by the same motives, and (with the throwing around them of a few safeguards) adapted for the same surroundings as the mass of sane people in an equivalent station in life. Of course there are violent and hopelessly perverted lunatics, but they are, in my opinion, less than one in ten of the whole number, and under judicious, skillful and liberal asylum management but a small part of that percentage even, will show their worst characteristics and tendencies.

Moreover, the endless variety and complexity of character among the insane, equal to if not greater than in sane and well regulated humanity, make it evident that very great variations in domicile and style of living are necessary for the best results with different classes, while with the insane, as with the sane, only vastly more so, there are a thousand harmless eccentricities and vagaries which, with varying resources for meeting them, give no trouble, but which make life well nigh intolerable for all concerned when a uniform and monotonous method is adopted with all. How vast, for instance, are the differences in treatment and surroundings required by chronic, harmless mania in a healthy

subject, and suicidal melancholia, with a refusal of food, by acute delirious mania and terminal dementia, mild melancholia and hysterical mania, the neurasthenic state and idiopathic insanity. General paresis, monomania, alcoholic insanity, suicidal and homicidal mania each present their special perplexities. Again, when the classes into which the insane naturally fall, of private and pauper, recent and chronic, criminal and innocent, inebriate and epileptic, dangerous and inoffensive, are taken into account, will any one deny that great variation in style, arrangements, location and surroundings of buildings are required to meet appropriately the wants of hundreds in any one institution in which all or nearly all of these varieties are to be provided for, and that an elastic adjustment with regard to privileges, employments, and all the details of daily life will be needed?

The "rectilinear," "congregate," or "Kirkbride" form of construction has heretofore been called into requisition to meet all these wants. The idea of this construction was originally taken, perhaps, from the manner in which a cloister is built. Its features of seclusion, strict oversight, concentration of all needed appointments in compact shape and resulting convenience, safety and economy, were appropriate to a considerable degree, and especially for recent and highly maniacal or violent cases of insanity, and the provision of hospital facilities which this type of building secured to the disease insanity was a great step in advance. This model was improved upon and brought gradually to completeness by the labors of successive physicians, architects, or humanitarians, notably by Kirkbride, who combined in himself the excellencies of all these professions, and to whom be all honor for the incalculable benefit derived from his life-long labors for the insane. The linear model is, for a small number of persons, say, not over one hundred and twenty-five of each sex, needing close medical attention and strict confinement, more admirably calculated than any building that has yet been put in operation. But the unexpected and unprecedented increase of insanity has led, as has heretofore been pointed out by Mr. Wines, to the enlargement of buildings on the above plan, until to-day seven hundred or eight hundred patients, on an average, are confined in the congregate asylums of the country, taken together.

And when such numbers are brought together in them, the defects of a building of this kind for universal use become apparent. It may be argued that such

large asylums should not be built and I am not one to dispute the assertion, but the actual state of affairs must be met, rather than any condition of things we might prefer, and no one familiar with the subject would claim that any of the large and populous states of the Union, could be induced in the future as they have been in the past to provide a sufficient number of asylums to accomodate only two hundred or three hundred in each and provide enough of them for all their insane. And this is mainly on account of the expense, which is the first defect I will mention as well as obstacle to the universal use of the "linear" plan.

Scarcely any state in the Union could support the expenditure for full provision of the linear type, as the following figures will show: According to present information every state with 1,000,000 inhabitants, has, or in the near future will have 2,500 insane to provide for, or one in at least every 400 of the population, and, as the average expense of $1,000, which is a reasonable *per capita* cost for every congregate asylum, $2,500,000 would be the necessary appropriation for the first cost of buildings alone, or $100,000 for every 100 patients provided for, and this figure would be greatly exceeded if each asylum were built only for 250, since the outlay for the "plant" is almost as great for that number as for 500. On the other hand very good and substantial detached buildings, generally two stories in height and corresponding more to a "house" plan have been erected for sums varying between $200 and $500, but on an average for about one-third the cost of the congregate system per capita.

Another defect which is observable in the linear type of building is the total dissimilarity it presents to any other form of dwelling to which its occupants can ever have been accustomed previous to entering it, a fact which hinders homelike adaptation to surroundings, and impresses with something like strangeness and artificiality all whom it is sought to domesticate beneath its roof, and in connection with this, the objections of sameness of internal arrangement and monotony of daily experience need to be taken into account. Indoor life spent in a single long hall, having barred windows and locked doors, with parlor, bedroom, closets, dining-room, etc., all concentrated within its limits, is a reversal of natural and healthful conditions of life. The type of all domestic dwellings is totally different. These have an up stairs and a down stairs, doors with latches, windows

to open, a kitchen and a pantry, a family room with stove or grate, a variety of bedrooms and a door-yard of their own; and as many of these things as can be safely secured for the insane are to be diligently sought. The corridor arrangement brings into close and often irritating contact all who occupy the same ward, and though one ward may be exchanged for another, all are practically alike, the difference being in degree, not in kind, whereas with varying states of certain cases and for very many insane persons, totally new and different surroundings are often of the greatest service in benefiting or curing the patient, while the ceaseless restlessness of some is quieted by frequent changes. The value of change in surroundings, in short, which we all appreciate for the sane, is not less but rather more desirable for the insane.

The distinction in these things is one which it is very hard to define, but scarcely any one whether patient or visitor ever sees and experiences the two without fully realizing that distinction, and it is, perhaps, after all the concomitants of the detached ward or "cottage," as much as any thing in its construction, which render the difference the most striking, the absence of the public institution air and of some prison-like features, the sense of something familiar, private and simple in the house and its surroundings, the greater industry as well as freedom to which the inhabiting of these dwellings seems decidedly to predispose. Again, the variety among the buildings themselves, both in internal plan and in location, affords greater strength and security for those who need it, remoteness and seclusion from noise and disturbing influences for those who require this, and supplies graduation in every particular according to the needs of the patient, in medical and moral treatment, in employments, in amount of restrictions, in number of single rooms and associate dormitories, in the food supplied, in recreations and in all associations. Furthermore, the increased risks and dangers that had been prophesied, escapes of patients or severe casualities, unfaithfulness or abuse on the part of attendants, after a somewhat extended experience fail to present themselves.

All the above is one way of saying that there is, in smaller detached dwellings more opportunity for a natural, domestic or homelike environment than in a large, congregate asylum. The "home idea" is to be as far as possible encouraged. It should be the standard set up to be striven after however far below it we may fall—for

the true idea of home embraces all that can be conceived of contentment, comfort, cheerfulness, peace and plenty, while the asylum is itself a visible sign of defect, shortcoming and destitution in these particulars. To many public institutions the name of "home" is given. It is employed with a most praiseworthy motive, yet it often serves after all to emphasize the essential difference between a home and a charitable institution, since the latter exists for those who are deprived of a home of their own either through poverty or from defect and disease. The institution ought, nevertheless, to secure as many as possible of the features of a home. Yet the problem to-day is the combining in the highest attainable degree of the individual care and kindness, contentment and geniality which belong to a home, with the economy, safety, order and mechanical perfection which are necessary in an institution. In these two things are represented the respective ideas of "congregation" and "segregation," of centrifugal and centripetal force in the realm of charity. That institution, like that individual character, is the best which possesses most highly and in the greatest perfection the largest number of *opposite* good qualities, frugality and liberality, finished details yet complete unity and adjustment of all the parts, kindness, geniality, generosity, even indulgence in non-essential matters, firmness, vigilance and unrelaxing integrity wherever a principle of right is involved. It is in the line of "segregation" that the homelike qualities lie, of "congregation" that the institution virtues are found, and the equilibrium between these is what all are working toward. A more beautiful order is to be evolved, in matters of public benevolence; in the same manner as the worlds are formed by the revolution of nebulae, and the administration of charity to-day is emerging in all departments from a nebular condition, by labors such as this Conference and the men and women composing it, together with multitudes of others the world over, are proposing to themselves and energetically carrying forward.

As the central sun controls every system of worlds, so is a central and indisputable control necessary in every institution. That control must give as much as it takes, must find an exact and appropriate sphere for each and every subordinate part, neither unjustly abridging nor giving unduly to any person or part.

Now, while control and supervision of a certain kind is easier in a congregate asylum, on the other hand if unnatural and unfamiliar conditions which it necessi-

tates can be replaced by such as are more natural and in accordance with the better inclinations of human nature, less control and repression and supervision will be required.

The building or buildings occupied for an asylum in their form and arrangement, make just as much difference in the comfort, welfare and contentment of the occupants as the same elements do in the abode of a private family; although great comfort and happiness are often found in the most ill-arranged houses, on the other hand peculiar miseries are often harbored within the most admirably appointed residences; and hence even the form and type of building is of less consequence than the spirit which pervades it. Yet at the present time. as a means of influencing the occupants of asylums in a desirable and excellent direction, the importance cannot be overestimated of the reaction upon them of a form of abode which tends to foster their best impulses toward freedom in right directions, cultivate the sense of accountability, appeal to the sentiments of manliness and honor and social well being and well doing — things to which average humanity, sane or insane, never loses its susceptibility, but which is more difficult to call forth in the close and artificial surroundings of a "linear" asylum than in the precincts of a dwelling which has an individual, private character of its own.

The congregate asylum must be managed in every part as one institution, with strictness and uniformity, while many variations not injurious to discipline and promotive in themselves of welfare, contentment and domesticity are admissible in distinct and separate buildings. Furthermore, the ready intercommunication and supervision which the telephone places within our reach, simplifies the difficulties to a considerable extent, and electric lighting, cooking by gas, etc., also do away with objections which have deservedly heretofore had considerable weight. Again, great institutions which exist in one compact mass are prone to militate by the very fact of their magnitude against the careful consideration of humble personal needs, and this is a tendency against which those concerned in the management have constantly to contend. Such institutions are almost of a necessity conducted on a wholesale instead of a retail plan, and when the unfortunate insane pauper comes in and asks to have his little personal needs and wishes considered, it is like the inexperienced rural visitor to the city w hogoes intosome great wholesale grocery

house and asks for a pound of sugar, another of coffee, and a quarter of a pound of spice. It is highly inconvenient to weigh out these commodities in small parcels and there is apt to be much merriment among the clerks and salesmen at such a demand, as they refer the innocent stranger from one to another.

So there is something excessively incongruous in a large, close asylum in the request of one patient to have his little personal wishes taken into account, a meal served at an odd hour, to keep his trunk in his room, to be allowed his purse in his pocket, or for a dog, or a cat, or a bird to be permitted in the ward, and yet we all know that it is just such little personal privileges or comforts that make life agreeable, and the vast majority of insane people do not differ in appreciation of these matters from ourselves. Now consider an institution which possesses a number of different buildings for its patients, which has an infirmary ward for the sick and delicate, a paroled ward for those who can be trusted, a refractory ward where all who need it can be more securely kept, and all of these separated and under different and specially adapted management, it will be seen that some patients can have a little change in their pockets, occasionally one can have a bite "between meals" if the doctor thinks best, even a dog or a "harmless necessary cat" can be kept in a building with a door yard and a basement, without demoralizing the entire establishment. I do not say that some of these things cannot be done in a close Hospital, but that they are vastly more difficult in the latter, I do say from experience of both. And it is according to the spirit of our institutions to give even the insane pauper his just due, to supply him with the commodities which his individual condition requires, in small parcels, to provide for all reasonable needs and requests of the least as well as the greatest pensioner upon the bounty of the state. This is at least the sentiment of our laws and the desire of our people. The state, however erring its agents, permits no injustice or partiality, but proceeds upon the theory of ideal and poetical justice for all, requiring that to be as nearly attained as human imperfection will admit. Hence, more is often expected than is, or can be performed, and censure unstinted often falls, whether undeserved or merited, upon those who assume the difficult responsibilities; while the difficulties encountered and vast and almost incalculable benefit which every institution, even if not ideally perfect, gives by succor to the insane and relief to their families, by kind and careful custody, remain almost unappreciated. But

hence, also, there is a never failing stimulus toward increasing great perfection.

Separate or detached buildings for the insane in the United States have only come into use to even a slight extent at a comparatively recent period. An urgent, popular call has been kept up for them for many years. The example of some foreign asylums and methods adopted began long since to be cited, in which cheaper and more homely structures were thought to render the insane more comfortable and equally as secure as in our own especial type of linear asylum; and a demand for "cottages" for the insane was commenced and has continued. It may be admitted that this was in some sense an unthinking demand, and the popular clamor had an element of ignorance in it, but it had also an element of strength, because it had a truth in it, and this truth was that the insane did not all require the same surroundings, or the same kind of a dwelling, but that there were great varieties and a vast diversity of needs represented among them.

Another element was powerful in demonstrating that a new type of house was needed and could be employed for the insane. The immense number to be provided for, caused an overflow from various asylums into any cheap, simple, temporary building that could by any means be appropriated to their use, and remodeled farm houses, disused factories and schools, as well as wooden barracks, temporarily provided, were appropriated to their use. Finally, numerous disastrous conflagrations led to the occupation of various odd and out of the way buildings, and the surprising thing about the use of all these was, that the insane seemed to like better and be more comfortable often, in the veriest wooden shed, than they had before been in the well built, completely and even elegantly furnished "corridor" of the three or four story main building, and while more of contentment was obtained, there was no counteracting increase in expense or danger; so that many such buildings, meant at first to be only temporary, were retained and fitted up for permanent use.

Thus the force of "segregation" came into marked operation, and is at the present time moving to considerable modifications of asylums already built, and to selection of plans embracing detached buildings for the insane in many states, as for example, in the fitting up for permanent occupation of the barrack erected at the Southern Illinois Hospital for the Insane, after the destruction of one wing by fire; the recent adoption of

plans for new institutions with detached buildings, both in Indiana and Ohio, as well as addition of provision of this kind to a large number of older institutions in all parts of our country.

Now to briefly recapitulate the line of thought which it is sought to present in the foregoing pages; it is somewhat as follows:

1. Institutions for the insane were at first only founded for public relief and without the idea of benefit to the insane.

2. It has always been a too general impression that the insane were essentially different from the sane in everything; instead of the fact being recognized that they possess natural traits and activities which are however through the agency of disease modified, wrongly directed or held in abeyance, and this mistake has been very mischievous in its effect upon the provision made for them, preventing the supplying of a natural and domestic abode adapted to the varying severity of different degrees and kinds of insanity.

3. The essential difference between an Institution for the insane and all other institutions, in confining and controlling those who are held prisoners without being guilty of any offense, and who are entitled to the utmost privileges and consideration of their wants, without possessing in the eye of the law or in the exercise of reason the ability to enforce their claims—this difference was long overlooked but has of late come to be more fully appreciated.

4. Gradually insanity has been recognized as a disease and hospitals founded mainly for curative treatment and the congregate asylum has been developed, admirable for its purpose but not calculated for universal adaptation to the entire body of the insane.

5. Finally the infinite variations among the insane in the manifold forms of their disease, in the degree of reason and self-control, or characterizing different groups, in station in life, in complications caused by crime, drunkenness and epilepsy, are beginning to be more fully understood by public and medical profession, and a variety is being introduced in the erection of buildings as to location and internal arrangement by which an appropriate environment for each and all is sought to be attained, while at the same time the opinion gains ground that the domestic or "segregate" as contrasted with the "congregate" or "institution" idea should prevail for a large proportion in providing for them economical and substantial buildings with as

much of the houselike and homelike character as in each instance the fact of insanity would permit.

THE CHAIRMAN: As our friend Mr. Mills is going away this evening, and will not be with us to-night, I know that the meeting would like to hear a few words from him before we adjourn:

MR. MILLS: I wish to explain the cause of the great mortality among the convicts. The people of North Carolina were very anxious to build a railroad to connect the Atlantic and the Mississippi. We had worked for several years to try to get it built, and had not, and one William J. Best said he would build the road for us under certain conditions. He had plenty of money, which we had not, and he proposed to build the road in a certain time, if we would give him 500 convicts during that time. The Legislature made a contract with him. Of course he agreed that they should have food and clothing; and these convicts were sent up in the mountains to work, three thousand feet above the level of the sea, where the climate is severe. They had to work in the winter time, and a great many of them contracted pneumonia and consumption, and died. There is one peculiarity of a negro, when he is healthy he is well all over, and when he is sick he is sick all over. While he lives he lives in clover, and when he dies he dies all over. The railroad has never been finished, and the next legislature will let it to somebody else.

I am pleased to say that since our last meeting our State has made some progress in her charitable work. I have been taking some steps in the direction of an institution for the feeble-minded children, also. I have not been able to push it forward as rapidly as I desired, but a suitable tract of land has been given for that purpose, and I have found some people willing to give the money to put up a proper building. I hope, when this

convention meets again, we will have an institution for feeble-minded children.

MR. SCARBORO, of North Carolina: I shall go home this evening, and as this is the last time I will be in the Convention, I wish to express my great gratification at having come here. I will go home with a great deal of interest that I did not have before. I trust I shall be with you again next year.

The following reports were then referred to the Publication Committee, without reading:

REPORT OF THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

BY T. J. MOORE,

The state of South Carolina has no State Board of Public Charities. Owing to her peculiar domestic institution, and the arrangements engendered thereby, of a few years past, but little want was felt for such, and but little attention was paid thereto. The changed relations, however, of late years, are bringing the subject of Charities and Corrections *prominently* before the minds of her people.

Besides the county jails and State Penitentiary, there are no Houses or Institutions of Correction.

The charitable institutions of the state are the "County Poor Houses," "The State Lunatic Asylum" and the "Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind," all of which are supported by the public, the last two by state appropriations, and are overseen by Boards elected by the Legislature in the one case, and by appointment in that of the other.

The effort is being made to place these State Institutions on a high plane — abreast of the spirit of the age, and in this respect we feel proud of the success that has attended our efforts. We confess, however, that in the management of county poor houses we fall far short of our duty.

Short reports from the Superintendent of the Penitentiary, Lunatic Asylum, and the Institution for Deaf, Dumb and Blind, marked, respectively, "A," "B" and "C," accompany this report, to which your attention is more fully called. These officers are all here as members of this convention, and will gladly give you any information in their power.

In addition to these State Institutions there are several charitable institutions of a private nature, mostly in the city of Charleston, as the Charleston Orphan Asylum, the Confederate Home, etc., all of which are wisely, humanely and economically administered, mostly by municipal authority.

The Thornwell Orphanage, located in the town of Clinton, projected by, and now under the management of the Rev. W. P. Jacobs, is worthy of special mention because of the spontaneous contributions of a charitable people. With no monied resource to rely upon, there have been expended several thousand dollars in the construction of buildings, and many more in its maintenance. It now has forty or fifty inmates, supported entirely by voluntary contributions of a charitable people, mostly in South Carolina, though benefactions reach it from nearly every state in the Union. It is intended to be, and is in fact, a home and school for orphan boys and girls left in destitute circumstances. It is mentioned merely to call your attention to what a godly man actuated by a proper spirit may accomplish.

It may not be out of place here to state that nearly one-third of the taxes levied for state purposes are applied to the construction of buildings for and the maintenance of the lunatic asylum, and to show the spirit of our people I would say that the expense is borne without complaint.

The penitentiary and lunatic asylum provide for all her citizens alike, but in the deaf and dumb and the blind school, no provision has been made for the colored citizens until within the last year. The policy of the state having now been fixed, liberal appropriations may be expected for all parties.

South Carolina, in this work of public charities and corrections, considers herself a learner at the feet of her sisters, who have had the same under longer consideration, and have thereby gained greater experience. She is glad to join you in this great work, and bids you God speed.

SOUTH CAROLINA LUNATIC ASYLUM.

Since the establishment of its Lunatic Asylum, more than fifty-five years ago, South Carolina has steadily pursued its policy of providing for all the insane of the state.

During the last six years the number of inmates has increased from 315 to 615. To provide for this rapid

increase has severely taxed the resources of the state, but it has never faltered in its purpose.

As fast as practicable the main buildings have been extended, and, as necessity required, detached frame buildings have been erected. These latter, affording room for 200 patients, and of cheap construction, costing not more than $100 per capita, were built from savings from the maintenance fund. They form plain, but pleasant homes, and in the climate of the South can be made comfortable in the winter. They were intended as provisional buildings to meet emergencies, but have so far answered the purpose of all Asylums, a hospital for the curable, and a home for the incurable.

All these buildings are now full and the public mind is much exercised about the matter of further provision. What is best to do is now under consideration, but it may not be doubted that something will be done.

In coming to a conclusion the State confidently hopes to be aided by the discussions of this Conference.

In conclusion, it may be stated that there are no insane confined in jails or County Poor Houses.

The City Hospital of Charleston has a ward appropriated for the treatment of this class, but if not speedily cured its inmates are sent up to the State Asylum in Columbia.

P. E. GRIFFIN, *Superintendent.*

SOUTH CAROLINA INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB AND THE BLIND.

The Institution for the education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind, located at Cedar Spring in Spartanburg county, is supported by the state and has, at present, under instruction sixty pupils. In addition to instruction in the literary department the pupils are trained in some handicraft. Appropriations for the present fiscal year for all purposes are $12,350. The institution is under the management of a Board of five commissioners, appointed by the Governor.

N. F. WALKER, *Superintendent.*

SOUTH CAROLINA PENITENTIARY.

There are about 840 inmates in the Institution at this time. The leasing system was adopted as a necessity in 1877, and still prevails to a limited extent. Public sentiment is growing rapidly against the system, and the authorities of the Institution are arranging, as rapidly as they can, to employ them all inside the walls of the Penitentiary. There are about 330 leased out at

this time to Phosphate and Railroad Companies. About 180 are employed inside the Institution making shoes and hosiery, and 200 employed in digging a canal along the banks of the Congaree river, near the Institution, a state enterprise for manufacturing purposes, the amount of water power to be developed to eleven thousand horse power. The legislature has made an appropriation from the state treasury for the maintenance of the Institution for the last two years, the earnings of the Institution being applied to that purpose. The Institution turned into the state treasury $40,000 at the end of the fiscal year of 1882, out of earnings over and above its maintenance. The death rate of the Institution is about one and one-sixteenth per cent. per annum. The Penitentiary was established in 1866, and consequently, has not been established long enough to have all the improvements of older institutions, but constant and permanent improvements are being made. T. J. Lipscomb, *Superintendent.*

JAIL AND PRISON WORK OF THE W. C. T. U. IN NEBRASKA.

Mr. President and members of the Tenth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections:— I have the honor to represent the work of the W. C. T. U. in Nebraska, in the department of Jail and Prison Reform, and beg leave to submit the following report:

The National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, in executive session, organized a branch of work, known as Jail and Prison work. In each state a superintendent is appointed, to whom is committed the execution of plans, with discretionary powers.

The *religious* is the leading feature of the work. To hold bible readings or Sabbath School services in city prisons, county jails and penitentiaries, to distribute current christian and temperance literature, to visit sick or condemned criminals. In large cities to appoint a matron at Central Police Stations, who shall pass the early part of each night among the inmates, administering counsel learning their history, relieving their needs, washing and dressing wounds of the injured, who are brought in from street broils, etc. The matron also attends the police court each morning, and gives each case which requires personal attention.

In the case of boys discharged from custody, insures their certain return to their homes. Idle women are assisted to employment.

The question of finance is the chief hindrance in this phase of the enterprise. A Home for abandoned and inebriate women is an important adjunct, indeed a necessity. Wherever such Home has been opened in connection with station work, the matron keeps a record of the court sentence, and upon release, the prisoner is taken to the Home, given temporary employment, and, if sick, gratuitous medical treatment.

In the State of Nebraska police work has not thus far seemed feasible. Jail services have been regularly held in Lincoln and Omaha for several years. In Omaha the sabbath services are conducted by the Y. M. C. A., personal visitation by W. C. T. U. In Lincoln the entire work is under the auspices of the W. C. T. U. The State Superintendent has personally conducted the jail service for three years, and during the past year secured by subscription a good Library. In the prosecution of this work, some facts have been evolved which may have bearing upon the discussions of this Conference.

1st. The location of the city prison. In general, the unused basement of some government building is utilized to save the tax payer, oblivious of the fact that the health of the people is the wealth of the State. There is to our mind, but one authority for putting men and women under ground. From death there is no appeal. Yet it is to be hoped progressive science may yet institute better methods of disposing of the dead. But, at least, the air of a charnel house is unfit for the living. Sunlight and sleep and a pure atmosphere are the first requisites for improved morals. Divine wisdom has certainly furnished acreage for offenders, and no man has a right to mortgage God's territory. In the city of Omaha with a population of 38,000, in ten months, from August, 1882 to June 1st, 1883, 1,998 persons, many of them women, were incarcerated in the city prison, and in all its departments is neither chair, bed, footstool or bunk. A pair of blankets alone is furnished the criminal who must lie or sit, all the night, or all the day, upon the floor which is so damp in the month of August that mold gathers like moss, and but one fire in the main corridor in midwinter. No wonder the incarcerated go out to wreak worse vengeance upon society.

Our county jails are first class buildings with hydrants, ventilators, steel clad cells, and separate apartments for children and women.

The needful reform in jail discipline is that employment be furnished to inmates. Three, six or nine months of enforced idleness of associate criminals and

most frequently without reading matter, disqualifies youth or adult for good citizenship. A large percentage of those who serve such sentence, for first, or minor offences, are returned ere long, guilty of high crimes. A good library should be a part of the State furnishings of every county jail.

In penitentiary visitation the most urgent need which presents itself, is organized effort in behalf of discharged prisoners. It has become proverbial, that the criminal returns to his crime, and so, when a man passes behind the bars he cuts loose from the sympathy or hope of the world. His term of incarceration is unremembered except by his immediate friends, its terminus, an incident, which at best serves for a local item in the secular journals. Long seclusion has unfitted the man to enter the rank and file in any occupation or profession. His prison activity has been automatic. He has run as a machine which stops when the motive power is withdrawn. The passivity of his mind is not at once to be broken up, and in its first sudden arousal its manifestations are abnormal.

The released convict finds in the world *he* so welcomes, no response to his coming beyond the bird song or the leaflet's dance. The earth he treads so lightly is hard and unyielding. Neither highway nor byway gives place to the feet of the wanderer. The faces once familiar, are cold and unresponsive. The hands once clasped, have lost their warmth and tenacity. The first problem which confronts the man is the problem thrust upon the culprit at the outer gates of Eden six thousand years ago, and however it may have been before the man's incarceration, now, at least, bread must be won by the sweat of his brow.

The family group, mayhap, is estranged or far away. There is now no home where a vacant chair awaits his coming. This is the critical period in his history. I said no hand is extended in welcome. I mistake. Satan never sleeps. His vigilantes guard the return track of the sinner and hurl him back to his sin. The convict is in a mood to respond to any call. He has been virtuous or temperate by necessity, and not, while in prison, by the exercise of his own moral forces. These have been weakened by inaction. *This* is the man's supreme hour, of which the Devil is supreme witness, and *somebody* is detailed from his majesty's dominions to entrap the unwary convict at the saloon, Satan's play ground, which this first breath of freedom vitalizes. Shame upon boasted Christian enterprises, organized for the redemption of

men and women in far off provinces, with no provision for the weakling within our borders.

But the man we left in the play ground! He puts the elixir, which is deadly, to his lips and the inertia of defeat upon his soul. He steps out to the work of life. He finds each avenue closed against him. No corporation has work for an ex-convict. No man, no body of men, no sect, no church, no reformer, no organized body of reformers has taken cognizance of his needs or made provision for their supply.* Hence without money, without friends, without occupation, without lodging or food, with lost home his only possession, he finds himself in the midst of that sweet, wide world of his dungeon dreams — a stranger in an unknown realm. What remains of its language to him, is unintelligible to those around him. He appeals perchance, to that God who has tenanted his dungeon dreams, and to his obtuse ears comes back the harsh echo of that verdict of which he is already apprized: "The way of the transgressor is hard." In the line of personal effort, to give the released convict an impulse to a better life it is necessary:

1st. To convince him there is something redeemable within him.

2d. That the I will-power is *dormant*, not dead.

3d. That there is a Divinity *above*, if not within him to restore the function of the will.

4th. That he may lay tribute upon that Divinity, and lastly, organized corporate institutions, with graded employments and relative wages, available on application, must furnish the practical solution of this man's redemption.

The state should furnish such organized industries as a matter of public economy.

Respectfully submitted. ANGIE F. NEWMAN,
State Supt. Jail and Prison Work, Nebraska.

To the Secretary of the Conference of Charities and Corrections:

DEAR SIR — By request, I hereby respectfully submit the following brief report of our Institution:

Our school was established in the year 1855, and was called the New Hampshire House of Refuge. The build-

*Having heard the discussions of the Conference we are assured there are corporations, there are reformers, there are individuals, who are recognizing the needs of the ex-convict and are making provision for their supply. We believe this National Conference will hasten the day when such aid shall no longer be exceptional.

ings are very pleasantly located on the east bank of the Merrimac river, and one and a half miles from the City Hall, Manchester, N. H. The main buildings are of brick, five stories high; the rooms, forty in number, consist of chapel, school-room, dormitories, bathing rooms, dining and sleeping-rooms, offices, etc., work shops in the rear and connected with main buildings, one story high. Our farm contains 100 acres of excellent land, in a high state of cultivation. Our school is on the congregate plan and has accommodations for 140 pupils. We have on an average 120 — 100 boys, 20 girls. Our inmates are employed in farming, chair seating, shoemaking, making of clothing, etc. They attend school on an average 4½ hours daily, work 5½ hours. Health of the children remarkably good — only two deaths in the institution since my connection with it — (nearly ten years). This favorable showing we attribute largely to regular habits, wholesome food, good air and drainage, excellent water. Our management is under the supervision of a Board of Trustees, appointed by the Governor and his Council (appointed once in two years). The board consists of seven men of the highest character and ability who, from time to time, choose a Superintendent, who is allowed to select the subordinate officers and teachers necessary in the management of the Institution. Our discipline is mild, but firm; we seldom, if ever, resort to severe measures to maintain it. We give our inmates many privileges not customary in schools of like character. In good weather we take them all out into the open fields for recreation, frequently treat them to a ride in a barge drawn by six horses belonging to the school. Have religious services every Sabbath conducted by the Young Men's Christian Association of our city. Our children are committed by the supreme and police courts as well as by justices of the peace in towns throughout the State. The average sentence of our children is five years, average time of detention less than two years. Most of the children are allowed to go out on probation; a few are honorably discharged by our Trustees for good conduct. We are satisfied that 85 per cent. do well after leaving the Institution.

J. C. Ray,
Supt. State Industrial School, Manchester, N. H.

The Conference then took a recess till evening.

THIRTEENTH SESSION.

FRIDAY EVENING, Sept. 28, 1883.

The Conference met for the closing session.

MR. CALDWELL, of Kentucky: Louisville has been rather modest in this convention. We felt that it was our place to sit back and listen. Not a word has been said by a Louisville man in behalf of Louisville or her institutions. This afternoon Mr. Faulds suggested to me that the City of Louisville ought to be represented here by somebody, and that he did not know anybody to call upon except me. If I had supposed that our representative in Congress or Judge Bullock were going to be here I would not have consented. But as I have urged others to speak, I must now practice what I preach, and make some endeavor in that line myself. If you cannot do a big thing be ready to do a small one. If you cannot make a thirty minutes' speech try and make a five minutes' one. This lesson is taught us by the widow who cast in her two mites. If Paul had not been willing to talk to his Jailor, I do not know that he would ever have stood before King Agrippa.

I am proud of my adopted state. I do not think anyone will ever charge me with sectionalism. The place of my birth is far from here, and yet my heart is as warm towards my adopted state, and I am as proud of it as any native. I am proud of the noble men and noble women of Kentucky. I am proud of these fields, the most beautiul that the sun shines on, and I am proud of the institutions within her borders. I do not say that they are perfect. I do not expect perfection inside the State of Kentucky or outside of it. I do not expect to find perfection in a penal or a charitable institution. Imperfection is the nature of man.

There are dark spots on the life of every man and every woman; and we will find dark spots on every institution, no matter where it is. Heaven is the only place I know of that is perfect. The angels and the spirits of just men made perfect are the only ones that I know of that are perfect. The Bible tells us that he that covereth up his sins shall not prosper, but he that confesseth and forsaketh his sins shall find mercy. Wrongs in the city and wrongs in the state must be confessed. Every wrong done in an institution will sooner or later find its way to the outer world. Cain tried to cover up his sin. Peter tried to cover up his sin. Some men try to cover up the sins of their institutions, or say there is no sin in them.

As I said all our state institutions are imperfect. I have often been puzzled to find the cause of this imperfection.

When I was down south in the interest of this conference, I thought that I had to some extent deciphered the cause. When I reached Tennessee, I stopped at Nashville, and there I found a man whose heart is as big as his body, at the head of the Tennessee Penitentiary. We were welcomed and permitted to enter the prison, although it was the Sabbath day; and although there were but a dozen men in the hall, in less than five minutes after we entered it, it was thronged. The warden was willing and anxious that we should do something to instruct the prisoners, and we had service there, and he says that to this day his boys have not forgotten my visit, that I fixed myself in the hearts of those convicts, so that they will always remember me. I will tell you the cause of the loose screw. It is in the ministers. The ministers of the Gospel have never lent themselves to this noble cause with the zeal that we should expect from their holy calling. If the ministers would only put themselves to the task of condemning this punitive

system in the south, it would sooner be abolished. Wherever I have gone, there has not been a man, woman or child, that did not condemn the punitive system of the southern prisons. Yet I will say this for the south: that though her penitentiaries may not be on a par with the prisons north, yet her orphan asylums are equal to any north of the Ohio river, and one that I know of is superior. The first night of this Conference we had four ministers, but since that time I have looked and looked and not seen a single minister.

Our good men and good women of the city of Louisville were notified of the fact that the capacity of this hall was hardly large enough, and it is to that fact that the paucity of people who have attended to witness your deliberations is due. Yet they have, though not present, watched these meetings with the greatest care, and I tell you that you have made and will leave upon the citizens of this community a lasting impression — nay, not only on the city of Louisville, but upon the state of Kentucky.

It has gratified me beyond measure that this Conference held in our city has been such a success; and I only hope that our Conference next year may be alike successful.

The following report from Massachusetts, was presented by F. B. Sanborn, Inspector of Charities:

REPORT FROM MASSACHUSETTS.

I have the honor to submit, in behalf of the State Board of Health, Lunacy and Charity, a brief report of the changes in legislation and in the general management of the public charities of Massachusetts, so far as these have come under the notice of the State Board within the past year.

The Board for which I speak has more extensive powers than most State Boards possess, and has always been far more than a merely advsory and visiting body. It grew out of the old Alien Commission, which was

abolished twenty years ago, and has, therefore, always had, for one of its chief functions, the supervision of immigration into Massachusetts. Since the last Conference met at Madison, the Massachusetts Board has been authorized under a contract between the State and the national government made in December last, to supervise the execution of the Act of Congress concerning immigration which was passed in August, 1882, mainly at the instance of the State Boards and of the New York Immigration Commissioners. Under this act the supervision exercised is much the same, in our State, that it was before, but the United States now reimburses to Massachusetts the cost of this work, and of supporting certain poor immigrants — the whole amounting to perhaps $5,000 a year. The arrangement has thus far worked well, and we hear no complaint respecting it.

The powers of a Lunacy Commission, which were given in full to our State Board four years ago last July, have been judiciously exercised during that time, and the opposition to this part of the Board's work, which was at one time considerable, has now almost wholly disappeared. Insanity is increasing, and must increase in our state, as elsewhere, but the complaints of illegal imprisonment and improper treatment of insane persons, which are so frequent in some States, are but seldom heard now in Massachusetts. These complaints will always be made, to some extent, and no amount of vigilance can prevent their being sometimes well-founded; but we believe our laws and their administration in Massachusetts are now such as to reduce such complaints to a minimum, notwithstanding the crowded condition of our asylums. The condition of the chronic insane is steadily improving, but the care of the curable insane cannot be so good as it should be in our large and mixed hospitals. We hope for a classification somewhat better during the coming year. The number of the insane in our State hospitals and asylums is now more than 3,200, and in all our asylums at least 3,500, besides some 500 of the chronic insane and imbecile in the local almshouses, of which we have about 215 in the whole State. The insane make now the largest class of our public dependants.

By the Massachusetts laws, the State Board exercises a certain supervision over the alms-house support and outdoor relief given by over 350 cities and towns, each in its own independent jurisdiction. We take the census of the poor in these municipalities twice a year, in January and July, and I have taken some pains to

make up these figures to the latest date, July 1, 1883, for the conference. Exclusive of the state poor fully supported, who at that date were less than 2,000, the following statistics will give approximately, the number of paupers receiving indoor or outdoor relief, in our population of 1,900,000 persons, three months ago:

Paupers of all classes	21,500
Fully supported	9,000
Partially supported (outdoor relief)	12,370
Vagrants	130

These figures differ but little from those of a year previous — the indoor poor having increased nearly 300, and the outdoor poor having fallen off almost as much. The average number for the year ending April 1, 1883, shows a larger increase over the year preceding, amounting in all to about 1,600, in a total of nearly 25,000, the latter being about the average number of the Massachusetts paupers in a given year at present. This is about one pauper to every seventy-six inhabitants, which is about a third part as great as the pauperism of England. The cost of supporting and relieving all Massachusetts poor was in 1881, about $1,700,000, and in 1882, not less than $1,800,000, of which something like two-thirds was for indoor relief, and a little more than one-third for outdoor relief.

Some time was then given to closing remarks as follows:

Mr. Letchworth, of New York, briefly thanked the Conference for the distinguished honor conferred upon him, in electing him President of the next Conference, which he looked upon as intended for the State he represented rather than himself. He expressed his determination to carry out the wishes of the Conference to the best of his ability, and to further the philanthropic aims of those whom he had for years had the pleasure of meeting in these gatherings.

Gen. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, offered a resolution of thanks.

Mr. Garrett, of Pennsylvania: I second this resolution. I wish to express some appreciation for the happy time we have had in the city of Louisville. It seems to

me providential that we met here on this occasion. There has never been a more pleasant meeting, or one fraught with more beneficent results to suffering humanity, than the one we are now closing. This meeting has brought many of us of the north in contact with the people of the south, and afforded us an opportunity of seeing them in their true light and knowing them for what they are. I will always be glad that I have been here.

MR. WRIGHT, of Wisconsin: I wish to say that very much of the success of this Conference is due to the President. He has done a great deal of work which should have fallen on others. I am sure that the next Conference will be a like grand success, as I know that the President whom we have just chosen has great ability and willingness to promote the welfare of these meetings. I am glad that we came to Louisville, as we have learned to know the southern people.

DR. HOYT, of New York: I wish to express my great pleasure at having been here on this occasion and my gratitude for the attention shown to us. It has been a great benefit to the Conference, in that it has thrown us with a large number of able men who are ready and willing to enter into this noble battle with us. I have been struck with the good order of this city. Here, at the threshold of the jail almost, I have yet to see a drunken man or any arrest whatever. There is another thing that has added to our enjoyment, and that is the adaptability of this hall for the purposes of this meeting. It is so quiet and roomy, and so easy of access.

MR. SANBORN, of Massachusetts: I desire, on the part of the state of Massachusetts, to thank the people of Kentucky and of the city of Louisville, for the many kindnesses and courtesies which they have extended to us. I have always said, and say now sincerely, that the southern people are the warmest hearted and most hospitable people in the land. I shall always remember the

southern people. I am glad that we came here. I know that it has been good for us to be here. I know that we have ideas of the southern people that we never before entertained.

MR. WILSON, of Missouri: I have been more than pleased with the glorious work of this Convention; many things that have occurred lead me to think that this meeting will be prolific of good in many directions. Our Missouri delegation will make a report to the Governor and most urgently request him to have a State Board of Charities organized.

MR. MOORE, of South Carolina: I just want to say a word or two. It is the first time that South Carolina has ever been represented in a conference of charities. And I want to express my gratification, as well as the gratification of the South Carolina delegation, that we have met with this body. We feel in coming here that we have met a band of brothers. When we go home, we will take many pleasant recollections of our stay in this city and our deliberations in this body.

Dr. PUTNAM, of Massachusetts: I want to add a word of thanks to the citizens of Louisville for the kind reception they have given us here. This is the first time that I have been farther West than the middle of Pennsylvania, and I think, if every person East could take the trip out here, they would entertain far different ideas on some subjects. I know that we are all glad that we have been here and seen the Beargrass of which the Governor spoke this morning.

Mr. GILES, of Wisconsin: I want to say that I am glad that I came to the City of Louisville. I have always heard the Kentucky people are the most hospitable people on earth, and now I can add my testimony to that effect. Last year, when the question was up as to the place of meeting, I told you the Kentucky people

are a hospitable people, and now my brethren know the truth of what I then stated.

Mrs. FAIRBANKS, of Wisconsin: On behalf of the ladies of this Convention, I wish to thank the City of Louisville for their kind and considerate attentions shown us during our stay here.

Mr. FAIRBANK, of Vermont: In behalf of the State of Vermont I wish to indorse all that has been said, in sincere appreciation of the hearty welcome we have received at the hands of the City of Louisville and the State of Kentucky.

Hon. Albert S. Willis, member of Congress from the Louisville district, was then called upon, and spoke as follows:

MR. WILLIS, of Kentucky: *Mr. Chairman, and Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference:* After the very complimentary allusion that has been made to my city and state, I would not remain silent. We cordially reciprocate the kindly sentiments expressed in the resolution which has just been passed. And alluding to the statement made by a gentlemen who preceded me, that since your arrival you have seen no drunkenness on the streets of Louisville, in that statement you show the charity that is in the members of this meeting, that good feeling which will not see our faults. I would that I could say something that would be of service to you, but I feel that after all the wisdom that has been uttered it is not in me to add anything. I would be glad to contribute a mite to the grand contribution of profoundest wisdom that has been emanated by this Conference. I would be glad to add but one drop to that great stream of practical philanthropy, which I trust will widen and deepen and broaden, until the people of every state in this Union shall partake of its refreshing and health-giving waters.

There are one or two things connected with this Conference that impress me, and the first of these, as has

been mentioned already, is, that this is the first Conference that has been held south of the Ohio. I am glad to know that you have determined to invade the South in this way. I am glad to know that you have resolved to fight under that great banner upon which is emblazoned "Charity to all, to the utmost limits of our Union," and I hope that when your next Conference shall meet, the whole South will be with you to further the great aims that you have. Kentucky appreciates your coming. She bade you welcome to her borders, and she now fulfills the other part of the programme, and wishes each and every one of you Godspeed, as her parting guests. We wish for you all success in your grand work. Wherever you go, you will have the kind feelings and best wishes of the people of this city and state.

Judge Bullock, of Louisville, was called upon by the President, and spoke as follows:

JUDGE BULLOCK, of Kentucky: *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* I hardly know, at this late hour, what line of thought I can pursue. I am quite sure that nothing that I can say will add in the slightest degree to the profound interest which we all feel in the closing scenes of this Conference. I take occasion to say that it has been good for us of the City of Louisville that we have been here, and that we have been enlightened by the wisdom displayed in all the proceedings of this Conference.

Mr. President, I recollect, many years ago, to have met in one of the committee rooms of this house with your honored father. It was during his life-time, before his visit to Europe. There were some ten or twelve gentlemen present. From that time to the present I have been interested in the great cause in which you have been engaged, and for the furtherance of which you held this Conference in the City of Louisville. From that time to the present my attention has been directed

to this subject, and it is with profound gratitude that I realize the fact that great advancement has been made, that we have taken hold of the public conscience; that we are gradually yet certainly enlisting the great heart of the nation in this cause cannot be doubted. We have the promise of God that a great work like this cannot fail.

I was struck, and the thought occurs to me in this connection, that this Conference has recognized the fact that it is our duty to memorialize Congress, to send a delegation to the Congress to be held in the City of Rome some time in the year 1884. It is right. It is the duty of a great Republic to be represented in that International Conference. What are we to gain by it? What will be the necessary results of that Conference? Our delegates will return invigorated and strengthened with the best knowledge of the world on these subjects on which we are engaged. There is a grand impulse abroad, throughout the world, in favor of the great cause in which we are laboring. It is one of the intimations of the Divine spirit of Christianity itself, and if we succeed, as we must succeed, if we are faithful to our trust, the time will come when our own institutions will feel the reflex influences of the deliberations of that body which is to assemble in old Rome. There can be no doubt of it.

I heard a celebrated speaker on this stand the other day, a Jewish Rabbi. He spoke of the Old Testament doctrine in reference to charity. He spoke of charity as synonymous with Justice. I recollect, in that connection, to have read a work edited by your venerable father in which he developed the same idea. I recollect his language. He was refuting the idea that we derive our notions of liberty and constitutional right from the old republics of Greece and Rome. He said that our Declaration of American Independence, that

terrible handwriting on the wall of despotism, was but an echo of the deep thunders of Mount Sinai. If we would maintain our Institutions in all of their integrity we must lift up humanity. We must stop the sources of crime, barbarism, ignorance and wretchedness.

It is remarkable that this is the first Conference of Charities I have ever attended in my life, which is now drawing to a close, and I congratulate myself that before I lay down my life I have been permitted to listen to and participate in the deliberations of this body. I feel that in having done so I have been benefited. I feel that in thus participating in your meeting and seeing the progress that you have made and which you are destined to make, we shall be achieving a great object and be discharging the great mission in which we, as the followers of our blessed Saviour, should be engaged, and to which we should dedicate our lives. I need say nothing more.

I congratulate you. I congratulate the noble women who have participated in the deliberations of this body. We listen to their reports and suggestions with profound attention; they are the ever present ministers of mercy to our fallen race; none of these institutions of which you have been speaking and for the benefit of which you have met here could do without them. How beautiful it is, that in some churches, those women who devote themselves wholly to the good of the human race are called Sisters. Ah! Who does not know that a sister's love and a sister's mercy is the purest incense that burns upon the altar of the human heart.

May I be permitted to say something in behalf of my state and in behalf of my city. I thank you for the compliment you have paid us, and I wish here to state that my distinguished friends Dr. Bell and Dr. Blackburn, have failed to tell this convention something which ought to be told. You will be surprised, but it is nevertheless true, that the city of Louisville, with a

population of one hundred and fifty thousand people, has more charitable institutions of a certain class than any other city of the same population in the wide world. We have no less than ten orphan asylums under a strict religious management. We have another most remarkable institution — the only one of its kind in America, the Masonic Widows' and Orphans' Home, philanthropic in its character and merciful in all its ministerings. Allusion has already been made to the institution with which I am connected, the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind. Then, too, we have the American Printing-house for the Blind. This was organized in 1842, and was called the American Printing-house. For many years it was sustained alone by the state of Kentucky. We did not have money enough to build a house, and we did our printing in a basement, in the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind. We have now received an appropriation from the United States, upon the condition that the books printed should be distributed *pro rata* among the several states. Kentucky has never refused an appropriation to this institution.

My friends, when you go home to your constituents, remember this, that Kentucky, boastful as she may be of her chivalry, her people, and her state, has yet nevertheless been among the first in charity, which in her sense, means justice to the oppressed, the weak and defenseless.

I thank you my friends, on behalf of the state of Kentucky, and of the city of Louisville, for the kind words which you have spoken.

The Conference then adjourned to meet at St. Louis, on the call of the officers.

APPENDIX.

SECTION MEETING.

CHILD-SAVING WORK.

On Friday, September 28th., at 3 P. M., a number of ladies and gentlemen, specially interested in child-saving work, met in one of the committee rooms adjoining the city council chamber. Hon. W. P. Letchworth, presided. There were present Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks and Mrs. Mary E. Cobb, of Wisconsin, Mr. and Mrs. B. J. Miles, Mrs. Benton J. Hall and Mr. L. D. Lewelling, of Iowa, Mr. P. Caldwell, of Kentucky, Dr. C. R. Putnam, of Massachusetts, Mr. W. G. Fairbank, of Vermont, Rev. C. H. Bond, of Connecticut, and others.

The following papers were read:

NOTES ON THE SYSTEM OF VISITING THE GIRLS AND SMALLER BOYS WHO ARE WARDS OF THE STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

BY MISS E. C. PUTNAM, TRUSTEE OF THE STATE PRIMARY AND REFORM SCHOOLS, AND AN AUXILIARY VISITOR OF THE BOARD OF HEALTH, LUNACY AND CHARITY.

Number of Auxiliary Visitors, (women) 83; traveling expenses paid; one salaried visitor is employed as shown later. These visitors hold three meetings per year: one in Boston, at the State House, one in each of the State Schools (Primary and Industrial Schools). Number of children visited, i. e., girls from the above named schools with others placed on probation directly from the courts, or as neglected and dependent, without passing through any institution (also boys under 12 years of age), from 400 to 450, the number constantly varying.

This would, if equal division were made, assign six wards to the care of each Auxiliary Visitor. Such is not however the arrangement, the more or less populous districts, and various other conditions, causing a larger

or smaller number of wards to be placed in different townships. For instance:

BARNSTABLE COUNTY.

Number of wards	25
Number of townships where wards are placed	8
Number of Auxiliary Visitors, one of whom visits *seven* of these towns	2

HAMPDEN COUNTY.

Number of wards	65
Number of townships where wards are placed	15
Number of Auxiliary Visitors (another is needed)	8

MIDDLESEX COUNTY.

Number of wards	36
Number of townships where wards are placed	18
Number of Auxiliary Visitors	11

The greatest pains are taken to place the State Wards in the country farming districts.

The State Primary School being placed in the centre of such a district, has furnished the neighboring State of Connecticut as well as the neighboring counties of Massachusetts with "little maids of all work" for the past dozen years. Children more readily fit into country homes when placed in early years, provided they are in proper condition in body and mind.

Feeble, sickly children, as a rule, are not fit for family life; they need more regular diet and better adjusted to their special needs, than can be secured for them in a farmer's busy household. For such, shelter and gradual toughening must be given where the welfare of the child is made the one object, as in the State Primary School.

Healthy children cannot be placed too early, provided the home is carefully chosen, the child carefully visited, and removed in due season if real "incompatibility of temper" or other chronic difficulties arise.

Children directly from the courts are often simply in need of "cleaning up" before they can be placed out; on the other hand such children gain rapidly in health and good habits by a short stay in the Primary School and can gain admission into a better class of families than would receive them directly from the "North End" of Boston for instance, with its squalid, coarse associations. This is eminently the case with older girls taken from the courts for serious offenses, as is well recognized

by all who have attempted to deal with such. (See Report of Trustees for 1882.)

The greater number of places offer in or near the cities, but these must be set aside in favor of country homes, except in certain peculiar cases.

1st. Where the claim of parents is recognized by the State Board, and the child placed in its home on probation, which home is usually in some centre of business.

2d. Where a girl (I will not speak of *older* boys) is in the condition of mind when nothing except the variety and interest of city life can keep her reconciled to her necessity for work.

3d. Where a girl has become gradually accustomed to self-reliance by faithful work in a country family and by her own exertions has fitted herself for a trade or whatever she may choose. When once a girl arrives at this point, there is little to fear for her, even in a large city.

One of the greatest benefits arising from commitment to the State Schools during minority, is the authority thus conferred upon the trustees to *insist* on a season of probation in our country towns, where a demand for trained labor makes an intelligent, lively girl welcome as a member of the family. The law of demand and supply in the long run serves better than a half sentimental desire to "benefit the race." The latter may wear itself out, while the demand for good bread-makers and good carpet sweepers at moderate wages brings with it a wholesome consideration on the part of the employer for the girl who by friendly treatment and *on no other terms* can often be made happy and incited to do her best.

It is in choosing homes for girls over twelve years of age and in helping the girls to "choose the right and pursue it" that our auxiliary visitors have accomplished most good work. Young children may be as well visited by an agent who divides her time and thought among some hundreds, but a girl of fourteen years and upward craves personal individual interest.

CONCERNING THE REPORT FROM NEW SOUTH WALES.

Having arrived at the above conclusions after several years experience, it was exceedingly interesting to read the report from New South Wales for the year ending April 5, 1883, to find the similarity of experience there after ten years' work.

In South Australia, 474 children are boarded out; in Tasmania, 200; in Victoria, 2,000.*

The share of the work which the public undertake by virtue of the arrangements of the boarding out system is that of managing individual children. The share of the state is to select foster-parents for boarded out children and employers for apprentices with jealous scrutiny; to join with locally chosen persons of good repute, in ceaseless oversight of the children placed out, and to pay the stipulated weekly fee for boarding them. Consequent upon the placing of a child in any locality there are appointed resident ladies as visitors, whose function it is in the intervals between the officers' visits, to see that the children are properly treated and are behaving properly. If the local lady visitors fail to discharge their duty or discharge it perfunctorily, without tact, without zeal, without a sense of its supassing importance, the cause of boarding out becomes a lost cause.

I now desire to call attention to a different and more painful class of cases. If, as I have already pointed out, people naturally hesitate at receiving into their homes children who are afflicted with physical impurities, they may be expected more naturally to reject with horror morally deformed children. The morally diseased must be made whole in reformatories wherein, as the cure proceeds, it may be possible to obtain fit subjects for boarding out. Until some degree of soundness is imparted, it would be wrong to place some children in decent homes at all. The whole report deserves careful study.

PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN.

BY MRS. M. E. COBB.

I am glad that this additional time has been given to the field of Preventive Work Among Children, which I understand to cover all healthful influences provided for boys and girls taken from dangerous associations under sixteen years of age. Many of the practical, every-day workers, came to this conference hoping for much help in the Thursday programme.

It was not so much that we "wanted to talk," as that we wanted to hear and ask questions. *All* the work of the conference is of deep interest, is attractive and in

* These figures apparently include children who are self-supporting as well as those for whom board is paid.

close association with our home work, but these practical issues as to classification, placing out, and internal methods and economies touch vital points. After all has been done to prevent it, a large number of children will still exist who *must* have their industrial and moral training in the schools provided for wayward and dissolute youth. We would not have the number larger, but we do want and seek wisdom and strength for their care, and we expect to receive both in this conference, in the counsels and directions and sympathies of those who best know our needs. And in our opinion this department is most important in its relation to society, as it deals with those who have longest to live in the world, and are yet in the impressible age.

When perplexed by the intricacies of the question of classification among the inmates of child-saving institutions I have been comforted to find that more and more, I am able to believe that the children of good and worthy parents,—who alone can be "innocent little ones,"—do not so often fall under public care, as I once supposed. Even in cases of sudden accident, or other disaster in the family, there is often, even in large cities, some respectable relative or friend, who will see that the children are returned to early friends, or provided with homes without becoming public dependents.

There is yet a healthy pride of character and name, which the worthy poor work hard to sustain for each other as well as personally. When there is proof that children of respectable parentage and pure tendencies have fallen into institutions they should at once be placed upon the lists for supplying "good families" who desire good and interesting children for adoption or employment.

But systems of classification are sadly crippled by the facts of heredity.

In the numerous cases of families abandoned by husbands and fathers, and the fewer abandoned by mothers, there is frequently the taint of hereditary lack of principle and love of selfish gratification.

Classification in industrial schools should not degrade its subjects, either in or out of the institution, but should be used only as a means of securing needed instruction.

What a child has done before coming to an institution is no criterion of its moral condition. The one stigmatized as "criminal" may be more innocent and pure in heart and purpose than the one classed as only destitute. Cases of dozens of young children can be cited who were early placed in institutions where they never heard an

impure word, or saw a criminal act, yet who, as soon as placed out in families and exposed to the ordinary mixed influences of life, have sucked the *poison only* from every pleasure offered — who have grasped as with longing and eagerness at every opportunity to learn expressions of impurity and wickedness. It is when dealing with this class of subjects — personally pure, perhaps, but full of the propensities inherited from pauperized and vicious ancestry, that institutions are charged with being "schools of vice," when their inmates in after years are found in jails and prisons.

Here lies the saddest phase of all this work. I have now under my care at least a dozen girls who were adopted in their infancy by excellent families who, as they grew older, were obliged to resign them to special training as "incorrigibles." I will mention *one*, who was taken from a foundling asylum at eighteen months old — "a lovely baby," as the sweet foster mother says — and was tenderly nurtured and carefully taught by one of the best of women, in every way being treated as her own beloved child. From the age of eight she became an habitual truant, often going many miles from home, giving a false name, and claiming to live in some distant place. Her statements were found to be habitually false, her promise utterly worthless, and soon she became a thief, taking small articles or money wherever the slightest opportunity was given. When at last, after every effort to control these faults, it was decided to send her to the Industrial School, she stole the ornaments from the parlor table when the sheriff left her for a half hour at the house of a friend, while he attended to some business in a city through which he passed on his way. And we have now in our school a pretty blue-eyed baby, three years old, whose clinging little hands are lovingly stretched out towards every one, always claiming and receiving a kiss from officer, visitor or friend, who is, in her helpless, inoffensive babyhood, very dear to my heart, but whom I would not dare to *adopt*, nor advise a friend to do so. For her father is for the third time under sentence for burglary and housebreaking, and a more plausible, unprincipled scamp probably does not exist, while the mother is but a fair, inefficient, good-natured tramp, who follows his fortunes from prison to prison, with no more appearance of conscience, or appreciation of his offenses against or relations to society than a kitten might have.

I do not speak of these things to discourage the adoption of children, nor efforts at classification. I encour-

age myself by trying to look at these cases as exceptions; but alas, they are so very many that their lessons cannot be overlooked. In any case, our duty is not changed by a knowledge of all the difficulties, however serious, which we find in our way.

No really useful helper will be deterred from effort by a full view of the deplorable need for his work, no truly available aid will be won by making the field seem more inviting than it really is. The charges on which children are sent to an institution are but a small part of the considerations for securing true classification; all should at first be taken to our hearts as our children — the children of the state, and each should have a fair and equal chance for new development under the new influences.

It is indispensable for the reform of those who have fallen under condemnation in the outside world, that we remove the obliquy so far as possible, and let their future be governed by their needs as to special instruction, and their own or their companions' danger from communication. If the word and the idea of "criminal," as applied to a child under sixteen years of age, could be entirely removed from public use, one strong adjunct of reform would be secured, and if the legal process of sending children to reformatories could be a *civil* rather than a criminal one, another long step in advance of present methods would be taken.

Classification, then, can not be based on previous history, but must take place after careful study of character within the institution — always, of course, taking fully into account all reliable testimony from outside, as to acts and tendencies — and the children must be studied patiently and tenderly, with every opportunity for the development of their better nature, and under the exercise of sweet, parental influences as well as firm discipline. And there should be means for easy transfer from class to class or from family to family. The superiority of the family system is here evinced.

Contamination of one by another is almost impossible in a well regulated school home, and usually it is greatly overrated in considering this question, so far as that system is concerned. The boys and girls when out of school are always with officer or matron and their assistants, and are kept so busy with sources of good thoughts and impulses that the old associations are nearly crowded out.

The fullest confidence should exist between managers and all teachers and officers employed, but often it

secures the truest and most just treatment of the child for the superintendent or some other one person only to know particulars of past history. Then as principles of classification I would give

1st. The families or classes must be formed according to the kind of instruction needed.

2d. No disgrace should be attached to any class.

3d. Only strong personal qualifications in teachers will secure success.

This brings me to the only point which I had before coming here earnestly desired to urge upon the attention of this Conference, and I close by asking: Can any nobler work be done under its auspices than the establishment of some means for the training of the officers and teachers, upon whom, after all is done, the burden of all this work, the *daily* influences over all these children rests? Each institution is perhaps training a *few*, but under serious difficulties.

When peculiar talent and devotion are discovered in a new recruit into this truly "noble army of martyrs," who is willing to devote himself or herself to its pursuit, there should be a place where he or she may receive instruction from those whose teachings or practice have made them authorities in this field. A library of such literature as would help in the study of the subjects intimately connected with the work (of which library the reports of this conference for ten years past might be the nucleus), and courses of suitable lectures should be provided, so that special studies could be pursued under the "old masters," and we could make of practical aid the views of the learned and thoughtful students of social science in connection with the practices of the best experts. Theory and experience, in connection with study and practice under teachers, in some well-established and successful reformatory, with which such a normal school could be connected, would become compared and assimilated, and much light be thrown on the field where as yet in many minds, only twilight of the dawn is breaking.

To elevate this work into a profession, to be sought from worthy and stable motives, and pursued with humane and christian devotion, would throw floods of sunshine into dark places Among women there is reason to believe that many of noble character and the best social standing would enter such a sisterhood, if thus assured of being made fit for acceptable service.

HOW WE PLACE OUT GIRLS IN CONNECTICUT.

BY REV. C. H. BOND, MIDDLETOWN.

Before referring to my special subject, I wish to say a word in support of the position taken by Hon. W. P. Letchworth, in his able paper on "Classification and Industrial Employment."

There should be no longer any question as to the necessity for careful and, as far as possible, *thorough* classification in reformatories for boys and girls.

There is no doubt as to the expediency of the separating system, and I will offer no argument to prove that it is more successful than the original congregate plan. In making comparisons, for which I have no time, I would not include *all* congregate schools, for in some, and perhaps in many, there is recognition and practice of the family system, as far as they are able to carry it out.

Of course, in the delicate and difficult work of classification, we must consider previous history and present moral condition before we decide according to age. I could illustrate by many instances, but would rather be spared the recital.

The industrial employment of children is an important matter, but I think the best results are often lost by endeavoring to make them *self-supporting* in institutions. I refer especially to *girls*, of whom I have charge at the Industrial School in Connecticut. Boys may be employed at profitable industries, which should be of a character that will be useful to them in their future lives, but girls must be taught the art of *housekeeping*, and whatever interferes with this training is a curse to them, no matter how much money it may bring into the treasury of the School. A thorough education in housework requires frequent transfer from one department to another, but we are tempted to deprive them of the benefits of this rotation when customers are calling for paper boxes or other goods made in the shops.

We place out many girls from our institution into country homes with farmers' families. We have nearly ninety so provided for at present. Judge Ferris, of Tennessee, gave us an interesting account of his success in finding homes for orphan children. The majority of our scholars are not orphans; we could almost wish they were, for their own sakes and for the sake of the state.

We often feel the need of a training school for *families,* that they may be taught how to protect and provide for the girls committed to their care. Respectable families, highly recommended by pastors, selectmen and others frequently prove false to the trust and cause us much anxiety and trouble.

Our visiting agent, Hon. Charles Fabrique, of New Haven, is also President of our Board of Directors. He devotes a large portion of his time to the interests of the girls living out, who remain under our guardianship until they arrive at the age of twenty-one. We do not lose sight of our wards. This gentleman has reason to complain of the evil effects of unsystematic housekeeping and uneven temper, too often observed in families supposed to be well regulated.

One of the obstacles thrown in our way arises from the interference of unprincipled, unreasonable and intemperate parents, who strive to make the children discontented and unsettled; but we are able, in a great measure, to overcome this difficulty.

These girls cannot always be taken close to the heart of the household, as intimate companions of the children in the family, but great care must be exercised in drawing the line. The "bruised reed" should not be broken and nothing should hinder the awakening to a better life.

We have a form of Indenture which reads as follows:

No. ....

AGREEMENT.

I hereby agree to receive into my family .... from the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls, on the following terms and conditions to wit:— That I will pay her ..... dollars per month, for six months, increasing her wages at the expiration of that time, if she proves to be faithful and capable, and as she increases in usefulness, I agree to pay her the full value of her services.

I will allow and require her to attend Sabbath School regularly, and to go to Church at least twice every month.

I will give special attention to her moral training, and surround her with influences favorable to the proper development of her character.

Should she prove to be, in habits or disposition, an unsuitable or improper inmate of my family, I will promptly communicate that fact to the School, and return her to its keeping.

I will not cause nor permit her to be transferred to any other home without the authority of the School.

She shall have careful and thorough instruction in the art of housekeeping, and be fitted to earn her support thereby, if otherwise capable.

(Signature.) .....

Name of girl, ...
Present age, ...
Under the guardianship of the School until .....
Three months' trial ends .....

During this time you may return the girl and surrender this agreement without notice, if she prove unsatisfactory in character or service, or the School may peremptorily remove her from your care if convinced that the home is unsuitable.

It is required that her wages be not paid into her hands until she is ..... years old, but that you keep an exact account of her dues and expenditures in a suitable book which shall be subject to our inspection at any time, and which she shall be allowed to examine at least once a month.

C. H. BOND,
Superintendent.

Dated 18

Our preventive and reformatory work has been successfully carried on for fourteen years, in a school established on the family plan. Our system of placing out has been satisfactory in results, and we are convinced that *preparatory training* is not in vain, if supplemented by *practical* guardianship and continued *oversight* on the part of those servants to whom the State has committed the sacred duty of saving her children.

A discussion followed, for which there had been no opportunity on Thursday.

[This discussion was not reported, as the regular reporter was busy at the same time in taking the debates in the Conference then in session.—EDITOR.]

The following communication from Charles F. Coffin, of Indiana, who was unable to be present, was submitted on Thursday morning by the Chairman of the Committee on Preventive Work Among Children:

In accordance with the request of your President, I beg leave to submit the following report on the "International Congress for the Protection of Children, held at Paris, France, from the 15th to the 23d of June last. Mrs. Coffin and myself had the privilege of attending as delegates from Indiana. It was a dignified and interesting body composed of "Members of the Diplomatic Corps, accredited to the Government of France," "Delegates of Governments," and "Invited persons." The sessions were held at the "Palais du Trocadéro," in a conspicuous and beautiful room, hung with drapery and ornamented with flags of different nations, amongst which our own "Stars and Stripes" were conspicuous. All the arrangements were of the most elaborate and complete kind. The attendance would average five hundred (more than one hundred of whom were delegates), and the numbers kept up to the last, notwithstanding the Congress was in session ten days, and the closest attention was given to all the proceedings. The President was George Bonjeau, judge of the Tribunal of the Seine, and amongst the officers and "reporters" were several Senators and prominent public officers. The work was divided into five "Commissions," viz., (1) Little Children, (2) Children Abandoned, (3) Apprentices, (4) Refractory in School, and (5) Young Prisoners. Upon each of these subjects there were carefully prepared reports from distinguished specialists, which were read in the Congress and discussed in the separate Commissions — the forenoon being devoted to the latter, and the afternoon to the sittings of the former. The discussions were exceedingly full and elaborate.

Reports from many countries were printed in elegant style by their authors, presented and circulated, but not publicly read. I had the privilege of reading my own report in person. A full printed report of the "Vote adopted by the Congress International" is herewith submitted.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS.

FIRST COMMISSION.

QUESTION I.

First Resolution — In order that the Societies of Maternal Charities, the Societies for the Protection of Infancy, and the other associations of Charity which have for their object to prevent the abandonment of children and to encourage mothers to nurse their children, by assisting women at confinement and nursing mothers, may be able to extend their aid to a greater number of women and raise the standard of these reliefs; that the State and the municipalities should come to their aid by larger appropriations.

The same resolutions for the Crèches; see questions V, VI, VII and VIII of the programme.

Second Resolution — That the large manufactories which employ women should establish relief funds like those which M. Dolfus has established at Mulhouse to assure to the working women who become mothers temporary aid, to relieve them from work during the weeks which precede confinement and those which follow.

Third Resolution — That Societies for mutual relief should assure to their members the same advantages; that they should, if necessary, be encouraged to enter upon this course by special appropriations from the State.

Fourth Resolution — That indigent women who are confined in Maternity Hospitals, and who keep their children, should receive at their departure a sufficient relief to assure them for some days a home, nourishment and repose.

Fifth Resolution — That the law should permit the mother of an illegitimate child to demand support from the man who should be proved to have had relations with her at the time of the conception, unless he proves misconduct of the woman at the same time.

QUESTION II.

First Resolution — That children of tender age sent out for wet-nursing, for weaning, or for keeping for pay, away from the home of their parents, should be placed under the inspection of public authority.

Second Resolution — That no woman should be authorized to take a nursling until her fitness, her morality, and the healthfulness of her dwelling shall have been ascertained by competent authority.

Third Resolution — That nurses should be placed under inspection for the purpose of proving that the nursling is properly taken care of; that as soon as possible the state should exercise this inspection through associations, or private persons.

Fourth Resolution — That some measures should be taken,
1st. To facilitate nurses in recovering their pay from the parents of the child.
2d. To make the nurse certain that she will not have to pay the cost of physician and medicine, in case of the sickness of the nursling.
3d. To distribute to nurses and to all mothers instructions on the hygienic care of children.
4th. To give pecuniary encouragement to deserving nurses.

Fifth Resolution — That reciprocal international treaties should assure the inspection of nurslings, and the recovery of expenses of this inspection, in case where a child is placed out to nurse in foreign countries.

Sixth Resolution — This Congress, convinced by the discussion of the above resolution, that the most efficacious means to protect children of tender age, is to avoid sending them out to nurse, renews the resolutions that the state should encourage all institutions, such as Maternal Societies, Societies for the Protection of Infancy, Relief Funds, Crèches, etc., which under various forms aid poor mothers to keep with them, and themselves nurse their own children.

QUESTION III.

First Resolution — To maintain the system of temporary relief to the mothers of illegitimate children in order to prevent their abandonment; not to exclude from these reliefs married women; and to give a larger sum to a mother who nurses her own child.

Second Resolution — First part — There is no reason for re-establishing the "tour." Second part — In the countries where the law does not permit the mother of an illegitimate child to compel her seducer to contribute to the expense of the child. to take the necessary measures to assure secresy to her in case of giving up the child to the managers of a foundling asylum.

Third Resolution — In the same countries to establish Maternity Hospitals where secresy shall be guaranteed to women who may come to be confined there.

Fourth Resolution — That special Hospitals for sick children should be established in all large cities.

Fifth Resolution — That states, charitable associations, and private institutions should favor in all countries the establishment of hospitals and of stations on the sea coast and in the neighborhood of warm springs for the treatment of rickety or scrofulous children.

Sixth Resolution — To multiply as far as possible in the poor quarters of large cities dispensaries for children and institutions of relief.

Seventh Resolution — To make special hospitals for epileptic, idiotic, blind or infirm children.

Eighth Resolution — To forbid, by international measures, the exhibition at fairs, and other public places, of children afflicted with monstrosities.

QUESTION IV.

Single Resolution — To organize in each country a Health Commission, centralizing under one single authority, the various sanitary administrations. To reunite, especially, the gratuitous service of the physician for the poor and the medical inspection of the children of tender age placed for pay away from the home of their parents.

QUESTIONS V, VI, VII, VIII.

Créches.

First Resolution — That there should be established wherever necessary crèches in number sufficient to receive the children of women who are obliged to live by labor away from their dwellings.

Second Resolution — That the public authority encourage crèches by appropriation.

Third Resolution — That places should be reserved for crèches in the municipal buildings, and especially in the school buildings where the crèche will find its natural place beside the infant school.

Fourth Resolution — That crèches should be established among tenement houses of the working classes.

Fifth Resolution — That the great cities should establish crèches as well as infant schools for the children of working women employed in the manufactories. These crèches should be established away from the factories if the nature of the industry renders the neighborhood of the workshops unhealthy for the children.

Sixth Resolution — That whenever possible, and especially when an Orphan Asylum for young girls exists in the same house, the crèches should be utilized to train nurse maids.

SECOND COMMISSION.

QUESTION I.

Single Resolution — The Congress expresses the opinion that with the support of all governments there should be established a set of international statistics of abandoned children.

QUESTION II.

Single Resolution — The congress expresses the opinion that treaties should be made between states to establish reciprocity of assistance in what concerns abandoned children.

QUESTION III.

First Resolution — The congress admits the principle of taking away the parental authority of unworthy or incapable parents in certain cases which remain to be determined by the law.

Second Resolution — That legal power should be given private institutions and societies for the protection of infancy, to enable them to keep the guardianship of abandoned children, who shall have been confided to them, or whom they shall have gathered.

Third Resolution — That public officers, when they have to appoint guardians, should favor the choice of those persons who are especially concerned for the welfare of the child.

Fourth Resolution — That the control of the state should be exercised in what concerns abandoned children, in the same measure and under the same forms, as all other children placed in families, in educational institutions, or in industrial schools.

QUESTION IV.

Single Resolution — All the systems of education of abandoned children having their advantages, the congress expresses the opinion that they ought always to be adapted to the aptitude of the children, but that what is more important than the choice of the system is the personal character of the managers of the institution, and the choice of a suitable family for the placing of the children.

QUESTION V.

Single Resolution — The congress expreses the opinion that preference should always be given to individual patronage, and appeals should be made for its exercise at every sacrifice.

QUESTION IV.

Single Resolution — That expenses occasioned by the protection of abandoned children, in cases of insufficiency of resources of persons liable for debts incurred for the care of the child, and of those of the child itself, should be assured by the municipality, and by the state, in a proportion to be determined by law. That the state should favor in as large a measure as possible the extension of individual initiative in favor of abandoned children.

THIRD COMMISSION.

QUESTION I.

Single Resolution — Expresses the opinion that laws protecting the work of children, conformed to national usages, should be adopted everywhere, and should assure the protection of a foreign child in a manner as complete as that of a native child.

QUESTION II.

Single Resolution — The employment of children in factories under the sanction of the law should be preceded by a declaration by the manager previously made to the public authority.

QUESTION III.

Single Resolution — That the legal protection should embrace not only the children working in the factories, but those employed in agriculture, commerce, in theatres, and in paid handicrafts.

QUESTION IV.

Single Resolution — Considering that the system of apprenticeship can be best restored by the combined application of the principles of protection and discipline, the opinion is expressed that the idea of protection should be applied, by paternal assistance of the apprentice, to the development of his technical and technological instruction given in the syndical course; the approval of meritorious work resulting in a diploma conferred by a competent jury, constituting a recommendation, not an indispensable title, to become a mechanic; finally in the diffusion of trade schools.

QUESTION V.

Single Resolution — That there is reason for subjecting the family and the person who receive the apprentice, to the necessity of making a contract of apprenticeship in writing on pain of the nullity of the contract.

QUESTION VI.

Single Resolution — The trade school should be receptive, progressive, and made acquainted through a council of improvement with all improvements in practice, and accessible to the foreign child whenever there exists an international reciprocity of law. It is desired that the child before commencing his trade education, should have performed in the primary school certain manual exercises, which should have developed the gymnastics of the fingers: but this occupation, exclusively accessory, should not change the general character of the primary school.

There is reason to prohibit in the workshop the use of tobacco to apprentices.

FOURTH AND FIFTH COMMISSION.

QUESTION I.

First Resolution — It is agreed to banish the application of correctional or criminal penalties to children less than twelve years of age.

QUESTION II.

Second Resolution — The judicial authority should interpose to arrange the placing out in families, in private institutions, or in default of these, the reform school, of children less than twelve years of age, committed for a violation of penal law.

Third Resolution — The measures of reform to be taken in favor of children less than twelve years of age belong to the jurisdiction of the civil courts, as far as comports with the general judicial organization of the country.

Fourth Resolution — The police courts or criminal courts should decide upon the penal responsibility of minors, with regard to whom the question of the discernment or non-discernment of the criminality of their acts might arise.

Fifth Resolution — There is reason for placing where they will be absolutely separated from adults and from each other, children less than twelve years old, and minors with regard to whom the question of the discernment or non-discernment of the criminality of their acts might arise.

Sixth Resolution — It is agreed to make no application of short term sentences to minors with regard to whom the question of their moral discernment might arise.

QUESTION II.

Single Resolution — It is agreed to fix the age of attaining majority as the extreme term of correctional education, making allowance for the application of military laws and provisional liberation. In every case where a penalty shall have been pronounced, the condemned minor should likewise be committed at the expiration of his sentence, to correctional education till his majority, and in a special institution.

QUESTION IV.

Single Resolution — There is reason for establishing agricultural, industrial and maritime schools intended for young prisoners.

QUESTION V.

Single Resolution — There is no reason for establishing separate institutions for juvenile delinquents acquitted because they did not understand the meaning of their acts, on the one hand, and for vagabond or begging children, on the other.

QUESTION VI.

First Resolution — In the school work the industrial part should take place preferably in the morning.

Second Resolution — There is reason for recommending that the effective population should be divided into several detachments.

Third Resolution — The industrial work of the school should extend over, at least, three hours each day.

Fourth Resolution — The teacher giving primary instruction in reform schools and institutions for correctional education should preserve his rights to a pension.

Fifth Resolution — A teacher ought not to have more than fifty scholars in a class at once.

QUESTION VII.

First Resolution — In those countries where parents have the right of sending incorrigible children to a reform school there is reason to demand an extension of the time for which they shall be committed.

Second Resolution — During the term of discharge on ticket of leave, the managers of the institution should demand of the judicial authority that the father and mother of the child be deprived of the exercise of the rights of guardianship and correction.

Third Resolution — During the term of discharge on ticket of leave, the father and mother should not be allowed to obstruct measures undertaken by the managers of the institution to secure the placing out of children in apprenticeship.

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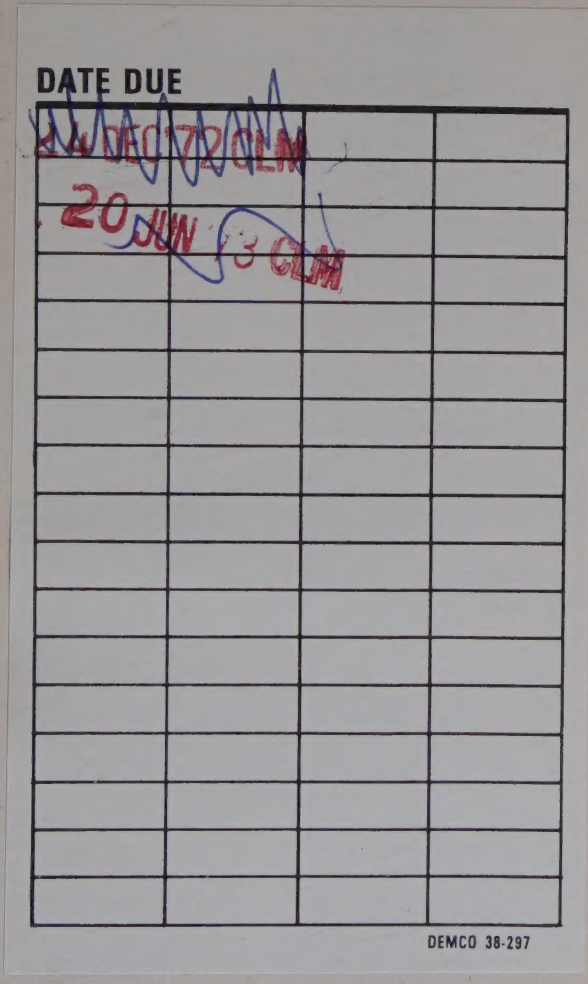

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